



FIRST STEPS IN THE  
HISTORY OF  
ENGLAND

✦  
MOWRY



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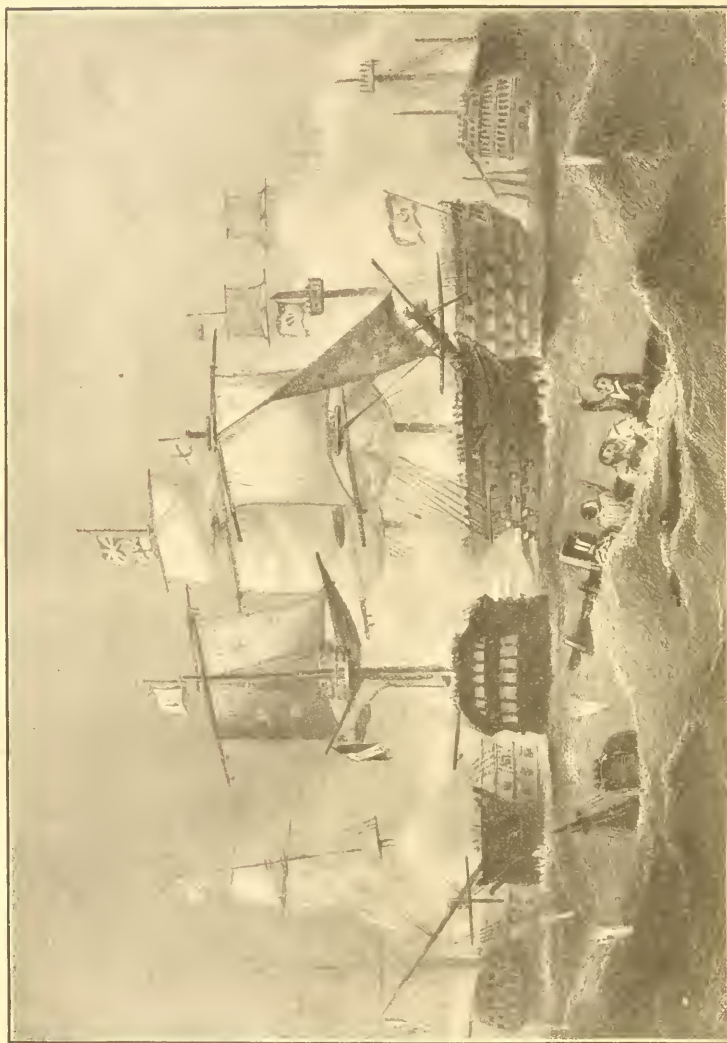
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*From the painting of the Battle of Trafalgar by Graham.*

“ENGLAND EXPECTS EVERY MAN TO DO HIS DUTY.”

# First Steps in the History of England

By

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joint-author of "A History of the United States for Schools," "First Steps in  
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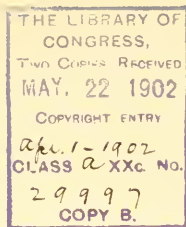


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## Preface.

IN writing this book the author has followed the same plan as in "First Steps in the History of Our Country," and, as in that book the history of the United States is told by relating the life-stories of the men who made that history, so in this volume the events of English history are described by making prominent the men who best represent their periods. In English history, however, it is impossible to make the stories strictly biographical, because of the extent of time covered and the necessity for giving a continued narrative in order to bring out clearly the cause and effect of the steps taken by the people to enlarge their liberties.

At the close of each chapter are suggestions for topical study, which will be helpful in preventing close repetition of the text in recitations. These topics are followed by thought questions, which are designed to bring out some hidden truth contained in the chapters, and to promote discussion and individual thought. These questions are in no sense "seek further" questions, for nearly all can be answered after a thoughtful study of the text. It is believed that teachers and pupils will find pleasure and profit by thus searching below the covering of words and grammatical phrases.

The book is sent out into the world in the hope that the lives of these patriotic Englishmen may inspire boys and girls to higher ideals of citizenship, and to a greater desire to help the unfortunate and the oppressed. Thus not only all classes of people, but all nations, will be brought into a closer bond of brotherhood, and injustice and discontent will pass away.

HYDE PARK, MASSACHUSETTS, 1902.



## Key to Pronunciation.

When the simple division of a word into syllables and proper accentuation make the pronunciation evident, diacritical marks are omitted.

ā as in *ale*.

ě as in *yet*.

ū as in *use*.

ǎ as in *am*.

ī as in *ice*.

ŭ as in *up*.

ä as in *father*.

ï as in *ill*.

ōō as in *moon*.

ē as in *eve*.

ō as in *note*.

ö as in *foot*.

ö as in *not*.



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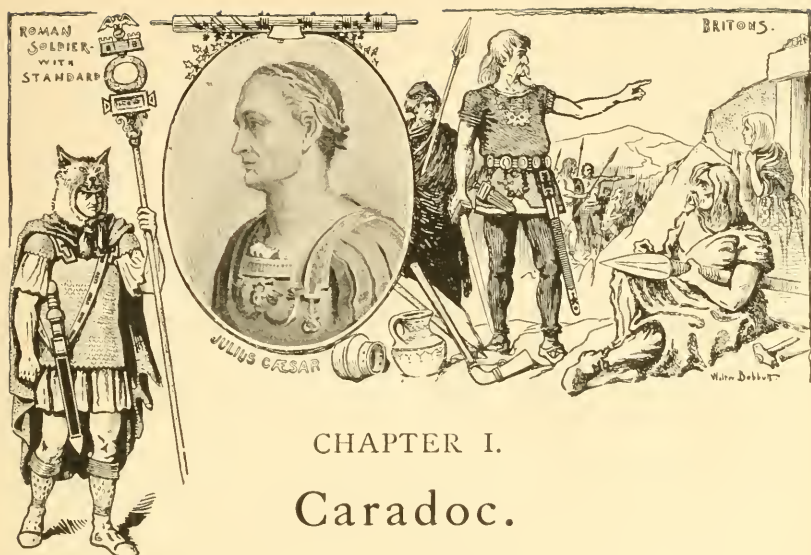


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## CHAPTER I.

# Caradoc.

## FIRST CENTURY.

THE history of England! We need not ask where or what England is. Every boy and girl can tell us that England is the largest of the three parts of the island lying west of the continent of Europe, called Great Britain. Everyone knows that England is the center of that great empire upon whose territory the sun never sets. Agriculture and manufactures flourish there; good roads, schoolhouses, churches, and hospitals abound. England is a civilized, a Christian nation. Once England was far different. Centuries ago the Christian religion had not reached its shores; the signs of civilization did not exist; hunting and fighting were the most common employments of its people. Indeed, it was not England; the inhabitants were not Englishmen, nor did they speak a language at all like English. The island then had the name of Britain, and the people were called Britons. The story of the wonderful changes that have made early Britain the England of to-day is the history of England.

In very ancient times we read of Egyptians and Israelites and Phœnicians (Fe-nish'-ans); but these people knew little, if anything, of the small island near the edge of the continent of Europe. Twenty-five hundred years ago Greece was the center of the civilized world; but its historians do not mention the island of Britain. Twenty centuries ago Rome was becoming the great power of the world, and still the island remained almost unknown. It was not until about fifty years before the birth of Christ that the first account of the isle of Britain and its inhabitants, the Britons, was written.

After four years of hard fighting, Julius Cæsar, the Roman general, had conquered the province of Gaul, now called France. At last he reached the shores of the English Channel, and saw the white cliffs of Britain across the water. With the soldier's desire to conquer more territory and with the student's eagerness to learn unknown things, Cæsar decided to cross the channel and visit the island. He prepared vessels for the voyage, and set sail about the middle of August, B.C. 55. This is the first date in English history—the first event to which any definite date can be given.

In a few hours Cæsar's vessels approached the shore near Dover and anchored not far from land. The cliffs were lined with Britons watching the boats draw near. They had heard from the Gauls something of the ever-conquering Cæsar, and were determined to keep the Romans from landing on their shores. Therefore their warriors had been summoned from far and near. Strange-looking soldiers were they, with their flowing hair and long, heavy mustaches that nearly covered mouth and chin. Their bodies, naked to the waist, were freshly daubed with blue paint, and were protected by shields, necklaces, and arm-pieces of wicker-work covered with a thin plate of metal. How could they expect to withstand the powerful Roman, whose very name was enough to strike fear in the

hearts of his enemies? But they were tall and muscular; they had fought with one another and with wild beasts from childhood; and their strong right arms knew how to wield the sword and the javelin with deadly force. They were not afraid.

As the ships neared the shore, they were greeted with a



*From the painting by Blakey.*

#### THE LANDING OF CÆSAR.

flight of arrows tipped with bronze or flint. The water was too shallow for the boats to land, so it became necessary for the Romans to wade ashore. The Britons, some on the beach and some in the water, stood with their daggers, short swords, and heavy clubs ready to resist the landing.

No wonder that the Romans, always victorious though they had been, hesitated to leap from their boats. They had fought



foes under almost every circumstance, but never before had they met desperate savages in the waves and on slippery sand. An eagle-bearer set the example. He jumped into the water shouting, "Leap down, men, unless you wish to betray your eagle to the enemy." To lose the standard was the worst disgrace a Roman soldier could suffer. The army to a man sprang from the boats, swam to the shallow water, and attacked the



DOVER CLIFFS.

enemy. A long struggle followed, but the invaders reached the shore and drew up in line of battle.

It was an undisciplined, helter-skelter army that was opposed to the Romans. There seemed to be no general plan of battle, and each warrior apparently fought for himself. Most of the Britons were on foot, though a few rode on horseback. The infantry and cavalry were aided by war chariots, to which were harnessed horses trained by their rash drivers to instant obedience. With tremendous speed they were driven through the

opposing lines, while a curved scythe, fastened to each wheel, mowed the enemy down like grass. Suddenly the horses were halted in their mad rush, and the drivers leaped down and fought in hand-to-hand encounter. Their foe slain, they mounted the waiting chariots, which plunged ahead once more. Such was the army that Cæsar fought. But the Britons could not hold their own against the steady onward march of the Roman legions, and the battle was soon lost.

Cæsar spent only two weeks in Britain, and then returned to Gaul. The next year he came again, won victories, and made a treaty with the king, Caswallon (Kas-wal'-lon). He then left the island, and for a hundred years it was undisturbed. Cæsar's visit, however, brought Britain to the attention of the world. A small commerce sprang up between Gaul and Britain; the inhabitants began to come in contact with civilization, and they lost something of their barbarous nature. When the Romans came again; they found the islanders less fiercely brave, perhaps, but with better weapons and a disciplined army.

The Britons made no resistance to the landing of the army sent by the Emperor Claudius, but gathered their forces and took a stand on the north bank of the Thames, where the Romans defeated them in battle, though at great loss. Claudius himself now arrived from Rome. He captured the British capital, defeated a large army, and returned to Rome to receive a splendid triumph.

Britain was not conquered, however. For eight years a desperate resistance was made by the king, Caradoc (Ka-ra'-dok). Step by step he was driven inland, until he took his last position on a hill near the border of what is now Wales. Here he fortified himself and awaited the Romans. Caradoc hastened here and there cheering his men. "To-day," he said, "will decide whether Britain shall remain free or be subject to Rome."

Caradoc had chosen his position so well that the Roman general hesitated to order an attack. Crossing a deep river, the army began the march up the hill, while the Britons showed missiles upon them. Holding shields over their heads for shelter, the Romans proceeded steadily upwards, until they met their foe. As usual, the Britons could not hold their own, and they lost the battle. The queen and the princes were taken captive, and the king's brother surrendered. Caradoc escaped, but was soon captured, and the royal family was sent to Rome.

As Caradoc passed through the streets of Rome in the procession formed to gratify the populace, who were anxious to see the king that had so long resisted the Roman legions, he noted the costly palaces and temples. "Strange," he exclaimed, "that those who own possessions, so many and so splendid, should envy us our poor huts." Slowly the procession moved into the field of Mars, where the Emperor Claudius and the Empress Agrippina (A-grip-pī'-na) sat upon two thrones surrounded by their household troops. Weeping and imploring mercy, the captives prostrated themselves at the feet of the emperor—all but Caradoc. He stood in haughty pride before the ruler of the world.

"Briton," said Claudius, "knowest thou not that thou must die? All who bear arms against Rome, as thou hast done, are doomed to death."

The heroic Briton replied: "Had my moderation in prosperity been equal to my noble birth, I should have entered this city as your friend rather than as your prisoner; and you would not have declined to welcome as an ally a king of illustrious descent who ruled many nations. My present lot is as glorious to you as it is degrading to myself. Had I surrendered to your power, neither my fall nor your triumph would have been as great as now. Put me to death, and my story will be forgotten. Spare me, and your mercy will be remembered forever.

As for me, I have nothing to live for; I fear death no more here than on the field of battle."

This noble speech and the dignified bearing of the captive king appealed to the emperor's sense of justice. He at once ordered that he be set at liberty. Whether Caradoc ever returned to Britain is not known, but we may be sure that this country-loving patriot spent the rest of his life in sadness, as he watched the complete subjection of his native race.

Not many years passed before the Romans were in firm possession of Britain. In the north of Scotland some unconquered natives called Picts still remained in arms against the Romans, but elsewhere the island was practically at peace. As a protection from the northern savages, a wall was built across the island



RUINS OF THE ROMAN WALL.

from sea to sea. This so-called wall consisted of a trench thirty-six feet wide and fifteen deep; a wall built of stone seventy-three miles long, eight feet wide, and fifteen feet high; and a road parallel to the trench and wall. Beyond were military camps four miles apart, each with its own wall and trench, while on the main wall were castles a mile apart, with watchtowers every three hundred feet. So firmly was the wall built that portions of it stand to-day after all these centuries. What terrible warriors these Picts must have been, to inspire such fear in the hearts of Roman soldiers!

For three or four centuries the Romans ruled Britain, and the island became a Roman province like Gaul and Spain. In many ways the conquest seems to have been of advantage to the Britons. They were taught to keep peace among themselves, and to settle disputes by law instead of by fighting. Good roads were constructed, and travel from one part of the island to another was made easy; towns were established, country villas were built, and the inhabitants were brought into frequent contact with the civilized world. Agriculture and manufactures were encouraged, until Britain produced more than was needed at home. In fact, the Roman occupation, to a considerable extent, made civilized beings out of barbarians; and with civilization, Christianity also came.

Nevertheless there was much discontent. To make these changes money was needed. Taxation was heavy, and this seemed a great burden to people who had never known what taxation was. That the Romans compelled their young men to be soldiers, and employed them in distant lands, was a serious grievance. Men were forced, against their will, to work on the roads and in mines. In fact, the Britons suffered the usual evils of a subject race ruled by those who thought only of their own interests. Still, all remained quiet until the Romans were compelled to abandon the province.

Name some of the changes that have made the England of to-day.

State the circumstances which caused Cæsar to visit England.

Describe the appearance of an early British soldier.

Give an account of the battle when Cæsar first landed in Britain.

Describe a British war chariot and how it was used.

Give an account of Caradoc's resistance to the Romans; his battle on the hills; his visit to Rome.

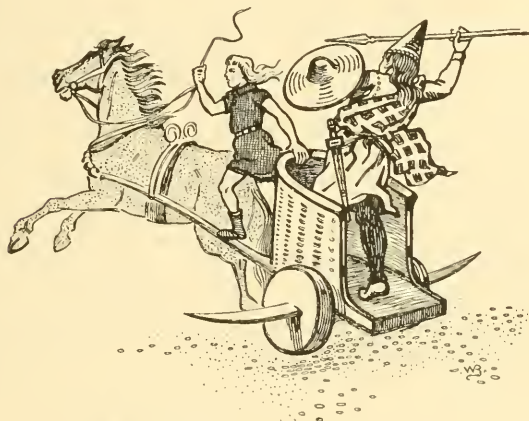
Describe the great Roman wall.

Tell what were the advantages and the evils of Roman rule in Britain.

- Why did the ancients know so little of Britain? How many years

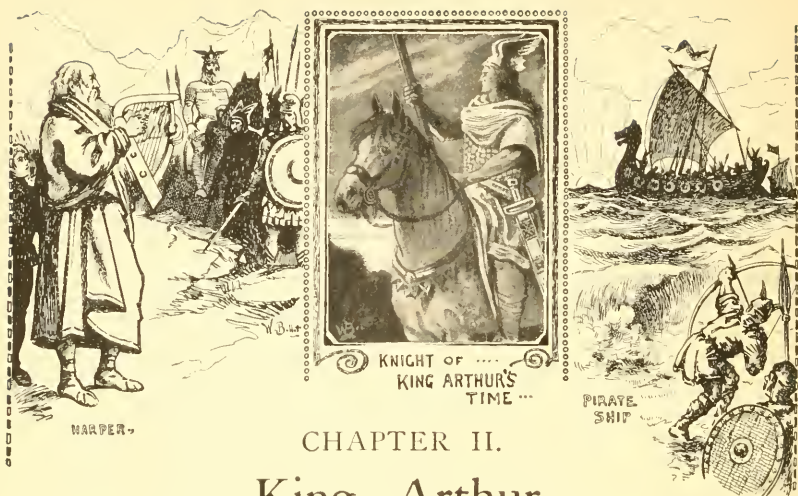


have passed since Cæsar landed at Dover? What was a Roman eagle-bearer? What was the important quality in a Roman army that made it victorious? Did the Romans envy the Britons their huts? What did Caradoc mean by his expression "moderation in prosperity"? What is taxation? Why were British soldiers in the Roman army sent to other countries?



*Drawn from an old print.*

A BRITISH SCYTHED CHARIOT.



## CHAPTER II. King Arthur.

SIXTH CENTURY.

NEARLY fifteen hundred years have passed since the last Roman soldiers sailed away from the isle of Britain. Doubtless the Britons watched their departure with great pleasure. At last they were free from heavy taxation; no longer were they a subject race; they were at liberty to govern themselves. But it was not long before they wished the Romans back again; they even sent messengers to Rome beseeching them to return.

The Roman conquerors had not taught the Britons the art of self-protection. Large armies of Roman soldiers had been stationed in different parts of the island, and these had furnished complete security to the natives. If their young men showed themselves soldiers by nature, they were at once drafted into the Roman army. But the British legions thus formed were never employed at home; they were sent to perform military service in other parts of the great Roman Empire, where they often proved themselves the bravest of the brave.

When the Romans were gone, the warlike Picts, who had

been kept back so long, swarmed across the wall and fiercely attacked the Britons from the north. The barbarous Scots crossed the Irish Sea and drove the Britons inland from the west. Bands of roving pirates ravaged the east and south coasts, plundering and burning wherever they went. "The barbarians drive us to the sea; the sea throws us back on the barbarians. Thus two



*From an old engraving.*

THE BARBARIANS DRIVEN TO THEIR SHIPS BY VORTIGERN.

modes of death await us, we are either slain or drowned," the Britons cried. Sorely pressed, they fought the invaders as best they could, but they were not such warriors as their ancestors had been, and they were seldom victorious.

At last the leading king of the Britons, Vortigern (Vor'-tĭ-gern), asked certain of the barbarians to assist him in conquering the others. He offered to give a part of Kent to Hengist and Horsa, leaders of a band of Jutes (Jŭts), if they would

defeat the Picts. This the Jutes quickly did, and then, turning on the Britons, they drove them from the whole of Kent.

Emboldened by the success of the Jutes, another band of barbarians, called Saxons, landed on the south coast west of Kent, forced the natives inland, and settled there. A third tribe, called Angles (Än'-g'lz), came also and captured a portion of the eastern coast. Thus the Britons, though obtaining temporary freedom from the barbarians of the north, found that they had welcomed an enemy far more dangerous. Little by little the foreigners pressed inland, driving the Britons before them and destroying the signs of Roman civilization.

“And still from time to time the heathen host  
Swarmed over seas, and harried what was left.  
And so there grew great tracts of wilderness,  
Wherein the beast was ever more and more,  
But man was less and less, till Arthur came.

· · · · ·  
And through the puissance of his Table Round,  
Drew all their petty pryncedoms under him,  
Their king and head, and made a realm, and reigned.”

“Till Arthur came !” Finally a leader arose, worthy of the name of Briton. Unfortunately we know with certainty very little about King Arthur, though many are the tales that are told of him. No history was written by the Britons, and the Saxons in their Chronicles made little mention of their own defeats. Therefore only the most general facts can be told.

It was Arthur's first task to make himself king. The Britons were looking for a leader, and Arthur's deeds of skill and valor easily placed him at their head. Other British chieftains attacked him, but his victories over them won their followers to his ranks. At last he deemed himself strong enough to encounter the Saxons as they pressed inward from the coast. After a

fierce and long-contested battle he won a lasting victory, completely routing the enemy. Arthur was now truly king; none dared to oppose him, and all yielded obedience. The Saxons remained quiet within their borders, and the Picts and Scots for the first time dreaded to make attack. For many years Arthur and his people were left in comparative peace.

But at length Arthur died, and his warriors died also. The Angles and the Saxons took up arms again, and little by little the Britons gave way before them. A century had hardly passed after Arthur's great victory, before the intruders obtained possession of the greater part of England. The Britons were confined to the coast districts along the Irish Sea, in what was known as Wales, Cornwall, and Strathclyde (Stráth-klid'). They were called Welsh, or foreigners, by the victorious barbarian invaders, and so hereafter we must call them.



A JUTISH COAT OF MAIL.

Would you know more of King Arthur and his Round Table? Then read Tennyson's "Idyls of the King," or that popular book for boys, Malory's "King Arthur." Do you wonder where Tennyson and Malory obtained their stories? They are simply English versions of the songs the Welsh bards used to sing during the long winter evenings in the highlands of Wales; they are English forms of the stories that the early British story-tellers used to repeat in the coast districts of Cornwall.

Shall we accept all the stories of King Arthur and his Round Table? No boy of to-day would believe that an arm, stretched



out of the sea, handed to Arthur his wonderful sword, Excalibur. But are none of the reasonable tales true? Very likely,



STATUE OF KING  
ARTHUR.

but we do not know which ones. In ancient times, before the art of printing was known, poems were read or sung by traveling bards as they spent the night in village or palace hall. Most of these songs were probably based upon some incident, some heroic act, that had really happened; but as they were sung over and over again, they came to vary more and more from the original and truthful account. Still more changes would be made by younger bards as they sang the poems which they had heard the old bards sing. In time little resemblance remained between the story as sung and the incident as it happened, yet there was always something of truth in the most improbable story.

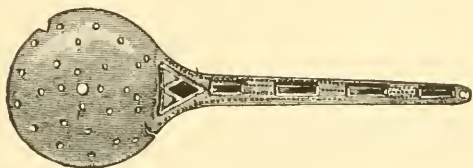
So it was with the legends about King Arthur. Though there is more fiction than truth in these tales, still they teach us much about the character and deeds of the heroic British king. Arthur was a Christian fighting with success against the heathen; he contended for God and native land; he represented civilization holding barbarians at bay. Arthur was the last of the great Britons, a worthy representative of the noblest characteristics of the people that dwelt so long in old England.

Describe what happened in Britain after the Romans left.  
State how and why the barbarians settled in Britain.  
Tell what is known of King Arthur.

Give an account of what took place in Britain after Arthur's death.

Explain how stories of real incidents lost their truthfulness by constant repetition.

Should the United States employ Porto Rican soldiers to protect that island? What is a pirate? Ought Vortigern to have expected the result that followed his invitation? Why was Arthur victorious? Why did the Britons fail after Arthur's death? What was the Round Table?



AN OLD ENGLISH SPOON.





### CHAPTER III.

## Bæda.

672 (?)—735 (?).

THE Britons had been driven from their native land, and their places had been taken by Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. These people had come across the English Channel from the continent of Europe. The Angles and the Saxons came from the country near the mouths of the great rivers of northern Germany; the Jutes lived further north in Jutland, now called Denmark. These three tribes spoke the same language, had similar habits and customs, and were considered very much the same people.

The Romans had been compelled to leave Britain because barbarian tribes were everywhere attacking the Empire of Rome. These barbarians belonged to the Teutonic race whose home was in Germany. They easily conquered Gaul, Spain, and Italy, and at once made themselves at home there. They mixed with the native people, adopted many of their habits and customs, and became somewhat civilized and Christianized. Their descendants were, therefore, but partly Teutons, and might

perhaps be called cousins of those Teutons who remained in Germany.

The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes—that portion of the Teutonic race which crossed the water to Britain—met with more resistance than those who had attacked Gaul. They came in smaller numbers in boats, and the war of conquest was more bitterly fought. When the contest was over, the newcomers did not mix with the natives, for the latter had been exterminated or driven out. They therefore retained the language, the customs, the habits, and the low civilization that they had had in Germany. They were, we might say, brothers of the Germans.

\* This people gave a new name, eventually, to the land which they had adopted, and to themselves as well. The Angles brought over their entire tribe, leaving the old Anglia in Germany uninhabited. They overspread the largest portion of the new country, and Britain in time became Angleland, or England. The people came to be known as English. The Saxons who came to Britain were but a small portion of their tribe; the larger part remained in Germany, and are now known as the Saxons of Saxony. For a long time the double term “Anglo-Saxon” was used instead of English, and even to the present day the descendants of these conquerors of Britain are often called Anglo-Saxons, whether living in England or elsewhere.

The Jutes, under Hengist and Horsa, landed at Ebbsfleet on the island of Thanet (Than'-et) in 449 A.D. This is the second important date in English history—the first arrival of the English upon the shores of England.

The Jutes conquered Kent, which remained their home. The Saxons came in different bands and established several kingdoms: the South Saxons in Sus-sex; the East Saxons in Es-sex; the West Saxons in Wes-sex; and the Middle Saxons in Middle-sex. The Angles also settled in different divisions of the country. In the very north, on the eastern coast, was

Bernicia; the region next south was called Deira (Dī-ra); the central portion of the island received the name of Mercia (Mer'-she-a); while the East Angles settled the eastern point, and were divided into the North Folk and the South Folk, or Norfolk and Suffolk. Many of these divisions of England remain to this day in the form of counties.

We speak of the English of the fifth century as savage warriors, as pirates, and as barbarians. Yet they were more than



THE HOME OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

barbarians, and they had other interests than those of war; they were proud of their skill as sailors, and they hunted the walruses and whales of northern seas. They did not cross the water merely for the love of plunder or the sake of conquest; they were attracted by the fertility of the island. There were skilled workmen among them, smiths who forged iron implements of war, and jewelers who made gold rings and bracelets. They lived in houses far better than the huts of which Caradoc spoke, as he walked in the streets of Rome. In fact, the English, though called barbarians by the civilized Romans, were far

ahead of the Britons of Cæsar's time in the necessities and comforts of life.

The Anglo-Saxon religion was much like that of the other Teutons; and the titles of their divinities have come down to us in the names of the days of the week. Their chief god was called Woden, and they named the middle day of the week for him, Woden's day or Wednesday. Thor, the god of thunder, and Tiw (Tē'-o), the god of war, were honored in Thursday and Tuesday. Friday was named for Frigu, the goddess of love; and Sunday and Monday for the sun and the moon.

After having conquered the Britons, the English began to wage war on each other. When the Bernicians had made themselves masters of northern England, they attacked and conquered the region south of them, occupied by their brother Angles, the Deirans. Not content with making the Deirans a subject race, the Bernicians sold numbers of them in the slave markets of Europe. One group of these captives was standing in the market place of Rome when a Christian priest, named Gregory, passed by. The youths, with their fair complexions and golden hair, presented such a contrast to the people of Rome that they attracted Gregory's attention.



ENGLAND IN 600.

"Who are those boys?" he asked of the trader who had them for sale.

"They are Angles," was the reply.

"They might well be named Angels, for they have the faces of angels, and they should be co-heirs with the angels in heaven. From what province do they come?"

"They come," said the slave dealer, "from Deira."

"De ira!" (Latin words which mean "from wrath") exclaimed the priest. "Ay, they are to be rescued from the wrath of God and given to the mercy of Christ. And what is the name of their king?"

"Ella," was the answer.

"Yea," said Gregory, "alleluia shall be sung in Ella's land."

The Roman priest himself helped to hasten the fulfillment of his prophecy. Many years afterwards, when Gregory had become Bishop of Rome, he learned that Bertha, the wife of King Ethelbert of Kent, was a Christian, and had been given a church in which to worship. Seizing this favorable opportunity, he sent forty monks with a Roman abbot named Augustine to preach the gospel of Christ to the English people.

Theirs was a long and difficult missionary journey. As the priests slowly found their way across Gaul, meeting with many obstacles and hearing many stories of the savagery of the English, their courage oozed away. They sent their leader back to Rome to explain to Bishop Gregory the difficulties and the dangers ahead, and to ask if they might not be assigned to some other task. Gregory, after listening patiently to the complaints, only said, "The more difficult the labor, the greater the reward," and bade the missionaries continue their journey.

At last they reached the shores of the English Channel, and secured boats to carry them across. Almost one hundred and fifty years after Hengist landed at Ebbsfleet, the missionaries came ashore at the same place. These two landings are of the

utmost importance to England. The first saw the beginning of the overthrow of civilization and Christianity. The second saw the return of Christianity, with civilization as an inevitable result.

Augustine sent messengers to Ethelbert, asking for an interview. The king called together his wise men for a council, and they decided that it would be discourteous to refuse the request. For fear that the strangers might be magicians, it was thought safer to receive them not within doors, but in the open air. Accordingly Ethelbert gave them a royal audience under a lone oak in the open fields, and patiently listened to the long sermon Augustine preached.

"Your words are fair," replied Ethelbert, "but they are of new and doubtful meaning."

The king was unwilling to give up the gods of his ancestors, but he offered shelter and protection to the Christian ministers. Day by day hymns were sung in the city of Canterbury, and the monks proclaimed the gospel and ministered to the rich as well as to the destitute. Within a year



CAPTIVE ANGLES IN ROME.



Ethelbert yielded to the preaching of Augustine and was baptized. The people followed the example of their king, and soon the Christian faith was triumphant in all Kent.



*From the painting by Tresham.*

ST. AUGUSTINE PREACHING TO ETHELBERT.

Its king, Edwin, who is noted as the founder of Edwinstow or Edinborough, married the daughter of the king of Kent. On the verge of a great battle, Edwin promised his wife that if he

Sometimes victorious, sometimes temporarily defeated, Christianity pushed its way through-out England. Essex and East Anglia were under the overlordship of the king of Kent, and they at once followed the example of that country. Bernicia and Deira had been united under the name of Northumbria (Nor-thum'-bri-a), that is, the territory north of the Humber River.



succeeded he would become a Christian. He returned in triumph and publicly thanked the Lord for the victory. When his wise men met to deliberate concerning the new faith of their king, one old councilor thoughtfully said:

“A man is sitting at meat in winter-tide, with the warm fire lighted on the hearth, but a chill rainstorm without. A sparrow flies in at one door and tarries for a moment in the light and heat of the hearth fire, and then, flying forth from the other, vanishes into the wintry darkness whence it came. Such is the life of man. It tarries but a moment in our sight, but what is before it, what after it, we know not. Does the new religion teach us anything with certainty of the future life? Then let us follow it!”

His words greatly impressed the council. They accepted the new faith, and Christianity spread throughout Northumbria. As Canterbury was the center of religious life in the south of England, so York became the great religious city of the north. Near York was the largest and best library in England, and also several monasteries and schools for priests. The best known of these schools was Jarrow on the Tyne, and it became famous because of the teachings of one man, Bæda, or the Venerable Bede, as he is sometimes called.

Bæda was born almost under the shadow of the monastery. When he was only seven years old his father gave him to Abbot Benedict to be educated as a monk. The rest of his life was spent in the monastery of Jarrow, where he was a diligent student and became remarkably learned for those times. Slowly, letter by letter, book after book came from his pen. Most of the books were on religious subjects, but the most important of all was his history, from which we obtain nearly all that we know of the early Anglo-Saxons in England. He was the first English historian.

The monks wished to make him abbot of their monastery,

but he declined the honor, as it would take his time from study and teaching. Though he remained a simple monk, his name made the monastery of Jarrow famous; from far and near young men came to study at the feet of the Venerable Bede, until at one time there were six hundred students in the monastery school.

Bæda was skilled in many languages, but he loved his own English tongue the best. His great desire was to make the Bible and its teachings understood by his pupils, and his last work was the translation into English of the Gospel of St. John. He was on his deathbed before the task was completed. One morning after a sleepless night, he was told that one chapter remained to be written.

"It is easily done," said Bæda; "take thy pen and write quickly."

The work was frequently interrupted by the tearful farewells of the aged teacher's pupils, and it was almost night when the scribe said, "There is yet one sentence unwritten, dear master."

"Write it quickly," was the response.

"It is finished now," said the boy at last.

"You speak truth," said his master, "all is finished now."

Bæda had finished his life with his task.

State the location of the early home of the English.

Tell how the descendants of the Teutons who traveled southward differed from those who went westward.

Explain the origin of the words Saxon, English, and Anglo-Saxon.

State where the English settled and explain the names given to the various sections of the country.

Describe the occupations of the English in the fifth century.

Explain how the days of the week received their names.

Tell the story of Gregory and the Deiran boys.

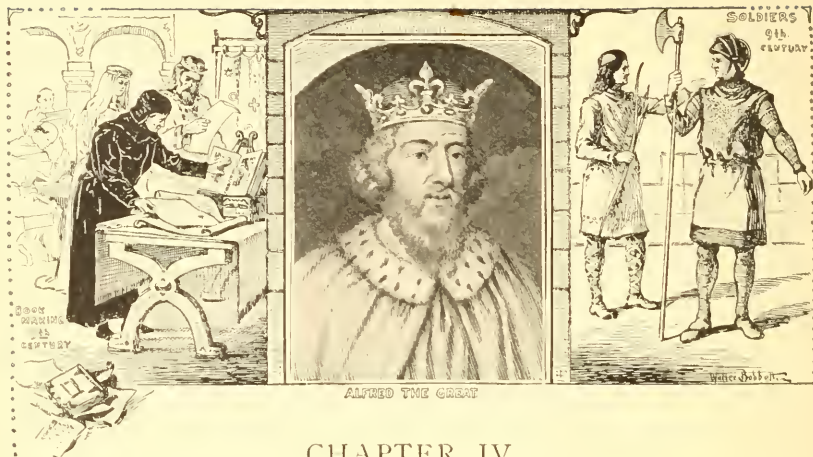
Give an account of Augustine's missionary journey; his reception by Ethelbert; the result of his mission.

Tell how Christianity was adopted in Northumbria.  
Give the story of Bæda as a youth ; as a writer ; as a teacher

If the Italians are only half Teuton, from what other race are they descended? Can a man be Anglo-Saxon and not English? What is the first great date in English history? Why were Ethelbert's wise men afraid of magicians within doors? What influence had women in Christianizing England? Who did the more for Christianity in England, Augustine or Bæda?



RUINS OF THE MONASTERY AT JARROW.



## CHAPTER IV.

# Alfred the Great.

849 (?)–901.

CENTURIES passed after the Britons had been driven to Wales and Cornwall, and still there was no true England. When St. Augustine landed at Ebbsfleet, the king of Kent was obeyed by some of the neighboring Saxon kingdoms; but he was not king of England. When Bæda taught and wrote at Jarrow, all the north was under the rule of Northumbria; but this king was not king of the English.

At length Egbert became king of the West Saxons. He had been exiled from Wessex, and had spent seventeen years at the court of Charlemagne (Shar'-le-mān), who at that time ruled over a large portion of Europe. There Egbert obtained the preparation that made him a real king, for at the court of the great emperor all the learning of the day was centered. He studied the art of government as well as the science of warfare, so that when he ascended the throne he was in every way superior to the other kings on the island. Before his death he had

united England under his single overlordship, and could truthfully call himself king of England.

When Egbert died, his son Ethelwulf succeeded him as the overlord of all England. The youngest of Ethelwulf's four sons was born just four hundred years after the landing of Hengist and Horsa at Ebbsfleet. This boy was named Alfred, and was from babyhood the favorite of everybody. Though his older brothers surpassed him in strength and physical vigor, Alfred was more thoughtful and earnest.

When the boy was but five years of age, his father sent him on a visit to Rome. The king had been victorious in his wars, and wished to present a thank-offering to the Pope. Unable to go himself, Ethelwulf chose his youngest son to represent him, the king of England, at the court of the Pope, the head of the Christian Church. So Alfred, with a large retinue of princes and nobles, crossed the Channel, traveled the entire length of France, pushed over the Alps into Italy, and on to Rome. What a journey for a boy of five!

The Holy Father warmly received the child, adopted him as his own son, and anointed him king of the West Saxons. In later years, when Alfred was fleeing for his life in the forests of England, what courage he must have received from the memory of the journey to Rome! Was he not the true king, crowned by the head of the Church? Must he not succeed in regaining his kingdom?

One day, soon after his return from Rome, Alfred and his brothers were seated around their mother, who was reading to them some poems. The book she held in her lap was of more value than the most expensive holiday edition of to-day. It was not a printed book; every letter had been carefully drawn by hand, and the first letter of each poem was almost a picture by itself, so beautiful had the writer made it.

Hoping to lead her children to enjoy reading, the queen said

to them, " Whichever of you shall first learn this book shall have it for his own." The older boys said nothing. It did not interest them; but Alfred instantly asked, " Will you really give that book to the one of us who can first understand and repeat it to you?"

His mother smiled and told him she would. Alfred took the book to his teacher, who read the poems until the child could repeat them from beginning to end. He received the promised reward, and more; he had learned to study and to love books.

Two years after his journey to Rome, Alfred again visited the great city. This time he went with the king, who carried rich presents to the Holy Father. The English king spent the winter in feasting and being feasted, and at Easter time started on his homeward journey. Reaching France, he was cordially received by King Charles the Bald, and was easily persuaded to spend several months at the brilliant French court. These long months at the two centers of European civilization greatly influenced young Alfred, and gave him an education which he could never have obtained in England, just beginning to emerge from barbarism.

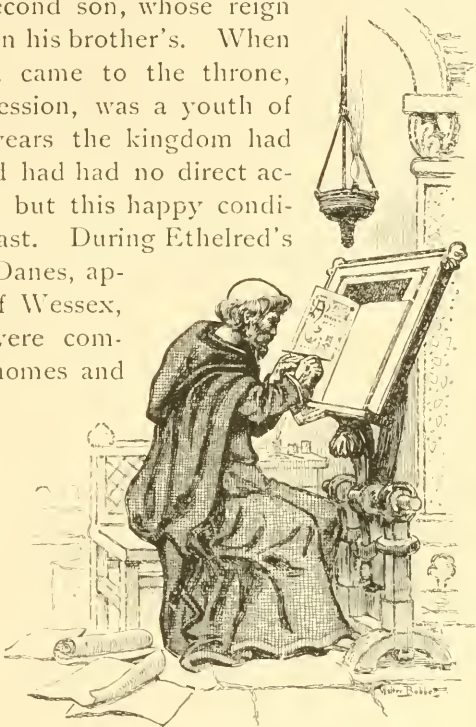
Scarcely had the royal party reached England again, when King Ethelwulf died. Who should be his successor? To-day there would be no question. Whenever a monarch dies his oldest son, if living, succeeds to the throne; if he dies before his father, the crown passes to this son's oldest son. A thousand years ago, however, this law, which is called the law of primogeniture (a Latin word that means first-born), had not become fixed. It was necessary, merely, that the new king should be a member of the royal family. In those warlike days no child, no weakling, no one who had not shown himself brave and heroic, could hope for the throne. The people usually chose for their king that member of the royal family who had proved himself best fitted to be king.



King Ethelwulf on his deathbed advised that the throne should pass to each of his four sons in the order of their ages. The people of Wessex had no objection to the eldest son, who quietly became king. He died after a very short reign, and was succeeded by the second son, whose reign was but a little longer than his brother's. When the third son, Ethelred, came to the throne, Alfred, the next in succession, was a youth of seventeen. For many years the kingdom had been at peace, and Alfred had had no direct acquaintance with warfare; but this happy condition was not destined to last. During Ethelred's reign a new enemy, the Danes, appeared upon the border of Wessex, and the West Saxons were compelled to fight for their homes and for their very existence.

When, centuries before, the Jutes had sailed across the North Sea from Denmark, they left behind them their brothers and cousins, the Danes. Four hundred years had had little effect upon these warlike, pagan seamen, and now they, in turn, crossed the

sea and plundered the coast of England. They speedily attacked the churches and monasteries, because they held treasure that had been accumulating for years. The priests were in such deadly fear that they added this prayer to the liturgy, "From the fury of, the Northmen, good Lord, deliver us."



A MONK MAKING A BOOK.



The motto of the Danes was, "I trust my sword, I trust my steed, but most I trust myself at need." Therefore it is no wonder that these self-reliant men carried all before them; and wherever their sacred flag appeared, the people fled panic-stricken. This flag had embroidered upon it a black raven that was thought to have wonderful prophetic powers, and was always consulted before going into battle. If the raven's wings pointed upward, it meant victory; if they drooped, defeat was foretold.

At first the Danes came merely for plunder, but the fertile land was so attractive that it soon mastered their love for Denmark. They landed in large numbers, and almost before the king of England realized their presence, they had conquered Northumbria and East Anglia. They next attacked Mercia, whose king bought them off. His cowardice was equaled by their treachery; the Danes accepted his presents, but immediately renewed the attack, until Mercia became Danish territory.

Strengthened by new forces from Denmark, the Danish king, Guthrum, turned his attention to the strongest of the Saxon kingdoms, Wessex itself. Ethelred and Alfred led the Saxons against him, and in one year nine pitched battles were fought. Alfred showed himself as brave as his Saxon ancestors had been. It is related that one day the Danish army was stationed on a hill all ready for the attack, but Ethelred was at prayer. Again and again Alfred appealed to his brother to give the word of advance, but the king replied, "Not until my prayers are heard." Fearing that inaction would weaken the courage of the men, Alfred would wait no longer, but led his part of the army against the Danes. His courage and enthusiasm were imparted to the troops, and they drove the enemy from the hill. Just as the victory was in Alfred's grasp the king's prayer ended, and he led his men to the success which was already assured.

In the last of these battles King Ethelred was killed, and Alfred, at the age of twenty-three, became king of the English, or, rather, king of the West Saxons. The united England over which his grandfather reigned had ceased to exist. Only the southern portion of England, Wessex and Essex, Middlesex and Kent, remained to the throne, and even this was being overrun by the Danes.

The West Saxons had no standing army; they came from their fields to fight, and, the battle over, returned to their harvesting. On the other hand, the Danes had nothing else to do but to fight and ravage these very harvest fields. Alfred was therefore at a great disadvantage, and was compelled to make terms by which Guthrum and the Danes agreed to withdraw from Wessex. Treacherous again, the Danes, having strengthened their bands, made a sudden attack upon Wessex, conquered the West Saxons, and drove their king into the forests.

Defeated, a fugitive, hunted, Alfred wandered through the woods. He came upon the hut of a cowherd and begged for shelter and food. While he was sitting before the fire, so the story goes, the goodwife asked him to watch the cakes and turn them that they might not burn. She doubtless thought that the beggar should do this much to pay for her hospitality; but the royal guest had weightier thoughts than the turning of cakes, and he let them burn to a crisp. When the goodwife returned, she called to him in anger:

“There, don’t you see the cakes on fire?”

Then wherefore turn them not?

You’re glad enough to eat them

When they are piping hot.”

Alfred lost no time in preparing for the renewal of the contest. A few trusty friends still clung to him; even the cowherd, though his wife knew it not, assisted the king in many

ways. Messengers were sent throughout Wessex to summon once more the sturdy Saxons to support their king. Secretly, a few at a time, they gathered in the forest, and at last formed a great camp at Athelney (Ath'-el-ney). Alfred, sure of his own forces, desired to know exactly how strong his enemy was,



*From the painting by Wilkie.*

ALFRED AND THE BURNING CAKES.

so in the disguise of a minstrel he sought the Danish camp and wandered through it. The Danes listened, well pleased, to the sweet songs of the bard, and, little thinking that he was the famous Saxon king himself, they concealed nothing.

Suddenly one day Alfred led his army out of the camp at Athelney and appeared in front of Guthrum's army. Almost

for the first time, the Danes fought on the defensive. Alfred had his choice of battle ground, and all the odds were in his favor. The West Saxons, united in their love for their brave king, and realizing that this was the last struggle for their fire-sides, were filled with unwonted daring. They not only defeated the Danes in the battle, but besieged their camp and cut them off from all supplies.

King Guthrum was compelled to make peace on Alfred's terms. He agreed to withdraw from Wessex, to yield Mercia to the English, and to confine himself to the eastern portion of the island. He also promised to become a Christian, and was baptized.

By this treaty of Wedmore, Alfred obtained peace. Guthrum would have been ready at any time to break his pledge, but he feared the young king of Wessex. Though Alfred yielded by the treaty a large portion of his grandfather's kingdom, he retained all that Wessex had ever directly governed, and, in fact, he recovered far more territory than he had ever hoped. What was of still more importance, he secured a long period of peace, which he could devote to establishing and strengthening his kingdom at home.

Alfred is the only king of England who has ever been called



ENGLAND AFTER THE TREATY OF WEDMORE.

*Thornycroft.*

THE STATUE OF ALFRED.

“The Great.” Why was he so called? Alexander was called “The Great” because he conquered so many countries that he wept for more to conquer; Charlemagne made himself ruler of united Europe; but Alfred, though a good warrior, lost half his kingdom. Alfred was great because, in time of peace, he made England great. Unlike many kings, Alfred was an unselfish ruler; his thoughts, night and day, were for the good of his country. Though always sickly and in constant pain, he was ever busy, planning the welfare of his people. “So long as I have lived, I have striven to live worthily,” was what he himself said at the end of his life.

Alfred saw that England, in time of war, had most to fear from attacks by sea. His first effort, after peace had been concluded, was to build a navy. Alfred's little fleet was insignificant when compared with England's navy of to-day, the largest in the world, but it was a beginning, and by means of it Alfred's descendants were emboldened to conquer the Danes completely. Alfred also established a standing army. One

half of all the men were ready for warfare, while the other half tilled the fields; and when the period of service was ended, these two divisions changed places.

Alfred's most important work was to educate the people. He established schools, but at first was compelled to obtain teachers from other countries. He himself was the best of teachers; he organized schools for the nobles at the court, and personally gave instruction in many subjects. As there were no text-books in English, he made them himself, and he translated many of the books of the day into the English language. He collected the scattered fragments of history that had been written, and arranged them into the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles. Alfred may almost be considered the founder of English literature.

The days of peace did not last, for Guthrum died, and the Danes could not be held in check. Alfred was, however, prepared for war. No longer merely on the defensive, he boldly attacked the enemy both on land and sea, and easily showed the superiority of his army and navy. The Danelaw, as the Danish portion of England was called, yielded to his overlordship, and remained peaceful until after his death.

The one thousandth anniversary of the death of King Alfred was appropriately celebrated in England in the opening year of the twentieth century. Elaborate services were held in the cathedral at Winchester, where his body was buried, and a colossal statue of the noble king was unveiled.

Edward the Elder succeeded Alfred as king of England, and continued the work which his father had begun. During the next fifty years Edward and his three sons were continually in conflict with the Danes, but Edred, the youngest of them, was finally successful. He not only restored to England all that his grandfather's grandfather, Egbert, had ruled over, but he even became overlord of Wales and Scotland. By the middle of the tenth century England seemed to be finally united,



and the long struggle between the petty kings of the various divisions of the island appeared to be at an end.

Tell the story of Egbert, king of Wessex.

Describe Alfred's first journey to Rome; his prize winning; his second journey.

State the ideas of the ninth century regarding the succession to the kingship.

Give an account of the Danes as they plundered the coast of England; as they conquered English territory.

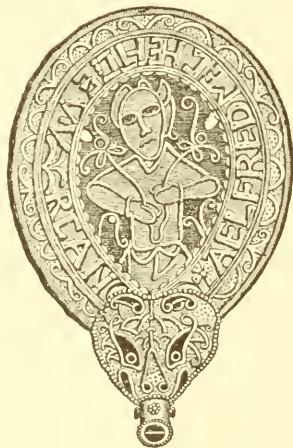
Tell the story of Alfred's defeat; his wanderings; his victory; his treaty.

Describe Alfred's new army and navy.

Give an account of the work which Alfred did for education.

Describe the later contests between the Danes and the Saxons.

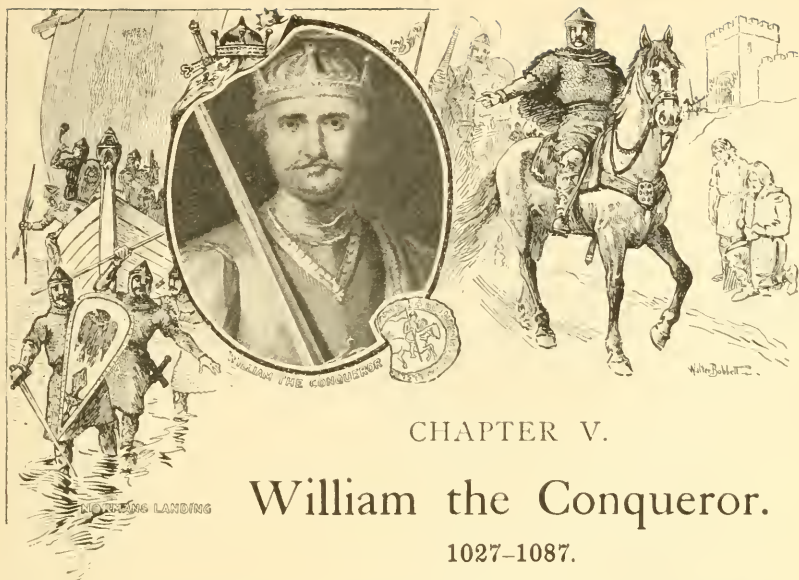
What means of conveyance did Alfred use on his journey to Rome? According to the law of primogeniture, who would succeed a king who died without children? Why did the Danes attack Northumbria rather than Kent, as the Jutes had done? Of what religions were the opposing peoples in the Danish-English wars? What is a standing army?



ALFRED'S JEWEL.

A jewel of blue enamel and gold, bearing the words, "Alfred had me wrought."





## CHAPTER V.

# William the Conqueror.

1027-1087.

WHILE Guthrum, the Dane, was fighting Alfred, the Saxon, for the possession of England, men from the north of Europe, called Northmen, were plundering other Christian nations and sailing over unknown seas. What little is known of these Northmen is learned from the Sagas, the poems which the Norse bards used to sing. The Sagas tell us how the Northmen settled Iceland, and how they discovered Greenland; they also tell of one Leif, the son of Eric, who sailed even farther than Greenland, and brought back tidings of a new world nearly five hundred years before Columbus made his great voyage.

More important in history is the story of Rollo, who, with a large band of Vikings, men from the Viks, or bays of Norway, boldly sailed up the River Seine into the very heart of France. He captured Rouen (Roo-on') and fortified it; he attacked Paris itself, and greatly frightened the king, Charles the Simple. He even compelled the king to give over to him the city of Rouen and all the territory in the northwest of

France. Charles simply demanded in return that Rollo should become the "king's man"; that is, should do him homage and promise to assist him in all his wars.

Rollo now became duke of the Northmen's land, or Normandy. Unlike the Saxons when they conquered England, the Northmen, on taking possession of the new country, left their old gods behind them. They at once accepted the Christian religion, and as rapidly as possible adopted French civilization. Scarcely a century had passed after the death of Rollo before the Normans, as they were then called, became true Frenchmen. Their neighbors across the sea in England always thought of them as Frenchmen.

The descendants of Rollo continued to hold the dukedom of Normandy for hundreds of years. About a century after the death of Rollo, Duke Robert the Magnificent determined to go on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. Before he set out on this dangerous expedition he called the nobles of Normandy together, and obtained from them a promise that if anything happened to him they would make his only son William, then a boy of seven years, duke in his father's place. This was a wise precaution, for news soon came of the death of Duke Robert.

William, the new duke of Normandy, was at first too young to be the actual ruler of his people, but fortunately the nobles who surrounded and protected him were trustworthy servants, and for several years the dukedom was well governed. Before he was sixteen years of age, the boy suddenly took things into his own hands. He learned one day, as he came back from a hunt, that Count de Longueville (deh Long'-vel'), who commanded the Norman forces, was in danger of defeat. The duke stood thinking for a few moments, and then called for his horse, saying to his attendants, "Let him who loves me follow me." He rode off at full speed, distancing all his followers,

and arrived alone at the camp of his general. His presence put new life into the army, and the enemy was forced to surrender. From this time on he was in truth the duke of Normandy. He governed with the skill of a statesman and a soldier. Now and then the nobles rose against him, but he always won them back to obedience.

What had been happening, meanwhile, in England since the time when the grandson of Alfred reunited the island under his own rule? About half a century after the death of Edred, King Swegen, of Denmark, made an attack upon the king of England, who paid him money to leave the country in peace. As might have been expected, Swegen returned the next year, and almost without bloodshed made himself king of England. His son Canute (Ka-nūt) was even a greater man than his father, and ruled England for many years. His two sons were weak and of little importance; when both had died, the Witan, or the assembly of the wise men of the Saxons, chose as king Edward, the only male descendant of Alfred.

Edward, who was later called "the Confessor," had been brought up an exile in Normandy, as his mother was a Norman.



NORMAN SOLDIERS.

Here he had learned Norman ideas and ways, and had come to despise English customs. He was a weak king, and the real ruler of England was Earl Godwin, the leader of those who were opposed to Norman ideas. When Godwin died, his son Harold took his place as chief adviser of the king. Edward had no children; in fact, he was the last adult descendant of Cerdic, the first king of Wessex, and after his death the Witan chose Harold to be king.

When the news of the election and coronation of Harold reached Normandy, Duke William was angry. "The Witan," said he, "is in too great haste; it should have considered my rights to the throne." And what were William's rights? He was not in the royal line, but no more was Harold. William claimed that Edward, many years before, had promised to make him his successor. Edward had no right to make such a promise; the Witan only could choose a king. William also declared that Harold had been treacherous, and had broken his word to help William secure the throne; but it is doubtful if such a promise was ever given.

William really had no claim whatever to the throne; but he had for many years looked with longing eyes at the fair isle across the Channel, and he persisted in declaring that the Witan must consider him as a candidate. He therefore made preparations to proceed to England and demand an election of the Witan. By careful tact and wise statesmanship he obtained the consent of the Pope, the assistance of the Norman nobles, and the voluntary aid of many of the French nobility, so that six months after the death of Edward, his fleet was ready to sail. Harold had learned of William's preparations, and had gathered an army to oppose his approach. But the fleet was detained by adverse winds, and Harold was compelled to visit the north of England to put down an insurrection. While he was celebrating his victory at Stamford Bridge, tidings arrived that William

had landed his entire army at Pevensey. Harold's army had been greatly weakened by the battle in the north, but he immediately took what forces were in condition to travel and in a few days confronted William.

The battle that followed at Hastings was something more



*From the painting by De Louthembourg.*

*Used by permission of Selmar Hess.*

#### THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

than a contest between two men; it was a struggle of two civilizations. On the one side were the Saxons, pure representatives of the old Teutonic race; on the other side were the Normans, partly Teuton and partly French. Much depended upon the leaders, upon the ability which each showed in grasping favorable opportunities.



The Saxon army was drawn up on a gentle elevation, and was protected by a thick palisade of trees and branches bound firmly together. When William was ready for the attack, his infantry marched with steady ranks up the hill, only to be driven back in confusion by the Saxons. The Norman horsemen galloped up the hill; but they, too, retreated in disorder. Time after time the Normans returned to the contest only to suffer defeat. The battle began in the morning, but the middle of the afternoon arrived, and the Normans had accomplished nothing. The Saxons became overconfident, and a portion of them ventured to leave their palisades to pursue the Normans. William saw his opportunity. Two or three times he drew the Saxons from their protecting wall by pretended flight, and as soon as their opponents were in the open, the fleeing Normans turned and easily destroyed them. At last, towards dark, William ordered his bowmen to shoot their arrows into the air, so that they might come within the palisades from above. Many of the Saxons were thus wounded, and King Harold himself was killed by an arrow that pierced his eye. The Normans then burst through the fortifications, and though the king's body-guard fought until not a man was left, the Saxons were unable to resist, and the victory belonged to William.

William had killed his rival and had destroyed a large Saxon army, but this did not make him king of England. He did not wish to receive the crown as a conqueror, but desired that the Witan should elect him even if he must force it to do so. He knew that the people would more readily receive him as king if he were elected by the Witan. Herein, as always, William showed an able and quick mind.

Many stories are told of how the duke, by the quickness of his wit, accomplished much where most men would have failed. When he first stepped on British soil, in all the pride of a duke of Normandy, William fell flat upon the ground. His followers



were frightened, thinking that bad luck must follow such a fall; but William, grasping the soil with both hands, exclaimed, "I thus take possession of the soil of all England." Again it is said that, while making hurried preparations before the battle of Hastings, he began to put on his coat of mail back side front. His friends exclaimed at the evil omen, but William laughed and said, "See how the battle is to turn me around. No longer duke, I shall be king."

The Witan, immediately after the death of Harold, met to choose his successor. Harold's children were too young, and his brothers were dead; the Witan had no thought of choosing William, so it gave the throne to the boy Edgar, a distant relative of Edward the Confessor. When William heard of the election of Edgar, he did not immediately march upon London, the capital of the kingdom. By leading his army in a round-about way he hoped to show the English nobles how strong his forces were, and how useless it would be to hold out against him. All southern England was at the mercy of the foreigner, for Edgar was too young to be a soldier, and had no uncle or other relative to raise an army in his behalf. He hastened to William's camp to yield himself, renouncing all claim to the throne. Now and then a noble joined the ranks of the conqueror, but for the most part they remained shut up in their castles.

Duke William entered London in triumph, called the Witan together, presented his claims to the throne, and requested that he be elected king. The Witan was compelled to follow his bidding, and William the foreigner, the duke of Normandy, the vassal of the king of France, was crowned king of England in the year 1066. This is the third great date of English history—the last conquest of England by a foreign foe.

Three years passed before William conquered the whole of England. Every noble who resisted him was declared a

traitor, and his lands were confiscated to the crown. These lands William divided among the Norman and French nobles who accompanied him, thereby changing the nobility from Saxon to Norman. This made a great revolution in English affairs. The new nobility spoke French, and pretended to have no knowledge of the English language; they had no interest in the common people, and were often tyrannous in their dealings with them. Their customs and habits were those of France,

and thus England was drawn into closer relations with the rest of Europe.



ROCHESTER CASTLE.

The English people had now been made. Whatever changes have taken place since the time of the Conqueror have been due to the ordinary growth of a people, not to the addition of a new race. We might say that they are such changes as

make a boy into a man, for, as compared with the Englishmen of to-day, the people of England nine hundred years ago were but children.

Let us see of what these English were composed. The Britons had been practically driven out by the Saxons. Their influence in later years was very slight, except in the extreme western portion of the island. We need scarcely consider them at all.

Roman civilization had been destroyed by the coming of the Saxons. Was that an injury to England? When pagan bar-

barism took the place of Christian civilization, was it a serious disaster to England? Perhaps not. Something in the stern individuality of the Saxons—in their idea that one man was the equal of another, in their custom of permitting all the people to take part in governing the country—was of greater value than Roman civilization. Saxon civilization when it came, and it came soon, was founded on the idea that each citizen was a free man. Roman civilization had made the common man a slave or a serf, and granted rights and powers only to a few.

Later came the Danes. During all these years of quiet possession of the island, the Saxons had become slothful, dull, lacking in energy. The Danes, in whom flowed the same blood as that of the Saxons, had retained their energetic manliness, and they waked the Saxons into life again.

Though the coming of the Normans was at first a curse to the English people, in time its good effects were seen. Though the Norman nobles remained aloof from the common people for a century or more, eventually they saw that their own interests would be best served by helping what they called the lower ranks. When the English thus became united, the old Saxon belief in the rights of the individual man was still active, while the Norman interest in the outside world kept the people in touch with Europe.

Give an account of the Sagas.

Tell the story of Rollo.

Describe the accession of William to the dukedom of Normandy.

Tell the story of William's first battle.

Give a brief account of the history of England from the time of Alfred to William.

State William's pretended claims to the throne of England.

Show how William made his preparations for the invasion of England.

Describe the battle of Hastings.

Tell the stories of William's tact.

Describe William's plan for winning an election by the Witan.

Show the character of the new nobility.

State the effects upon the English people of each of the foreign immigrations.

Why did Rollo sail up the Seine rather than some other river? What was it that made a man of the young Duke William? How did Edward the Confessor prepare the way for William? If Harold had promised to aid William in his attempts to obtain the throne of England, was he morally bound to refuse the kingship himself? Which is of more importance in battle, courage or a strong position? Which is of more importance, numbers or a leader able to seize opportunities? Why did the arrows shot upwards do more harm than those shot straight? What are the first two great dates in English history?

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*From an old print.*

A NORMAN GALLEY.



## CHAPTER VI.

# Thomas à Becket.

1117-1170.

WHEN William the Conqueror lay upon his deathbed, he divided his possessions among his three sons. He made Robert, the eldest, Duke of Normandy; he gave to William the crown of England; he asked Henry to be content with five thousand pounds of silver. William was naturally satisfied with his share. Robert demanded that England as well as Normandy be given to him, but Robert had frequently revolted against his father, and the Conqueror was only willing to give him that which he felt he must. Henry asked, "What good will the treasure do me if I have neither land nor house nor home?" "Take comfort, my son," replied his father; "it may be that one day thou shalt be greater than all."

William II., or William Rufus, as he was named because of his red face, was one of the most cruel of kings. The thirteen years of his reign were chiefly given up to the gratification of his own pleasures. He traveled in various parts of England, stealing

and plundering wherever he went, and acting more like an outlaw or a brigand than a king. He did not hesitate to take the widow's last ewe-lamb or to seize the last wisp of hay from a cowherd's stable. His death was a fitting end to such a life. He went into the great forest one day for a hunt, and did not return. That night his body was found by a charcoal burner, who brought it to Winchester in his rude cart. Henry, William's younger brother, who was with the hunting party, hastened to London, where within four days he was anointed and crowned king.

Henry the First, as he is called, because eight Henrys have been kings of England, immediately began to make himself more popular with the people than his brother had been. No objection had been made to the accession of William Rufus by the people of England, or to that of Henry I. The power of the Witan was gone; the nobles were quiet, and dared make no resistance. Robert of Normandy, however, laid claim to the throne of England, and attempted to take possession; but Henry defeated him and conquered Normandy besides. Thus the Conqueror's words of comfort to his youngest son proved to be prophetic. Robert was for a time Duke of Normandy; William for a few years ruled England; and Henry for nearly thirty-five years reigned over both countries.

Henry was very proud of his children, and, being an ambitious man, he desired to make himself more powerful through their marriages. For his son William he asked the hand of Alice, who was called the "noble maid of Anjou" (Ōn-zhoó). Anjou, one of the central provinces of France, was an important country, and would make a strong alliance with England and Normandy. Accordingly William, then seventeen years of age, was married with great splendor and pomp to the twelve-year-old Alice.

As the bridal party was ready to set sail for England, Thomas Fitz-Stephens, a seaman, approached the king and stated that his



father had had the honor of carrying the king's father, William, to the conquest of England. He begged that his beautiful new vessel, the *White Ship*, with fifty strong oarsmen, might carry the present king. Henry replied that his arrangements had been made, but that perhaps Prince William would accept the offer; and the king sailed away, taking the little bride with him. The imprudent, open-hearted William presented to the crew of the *White Ship* three casks of wine to drink to his health and the success of the voyage, and, as might be expected with a drunken crew, the noble ship with its royal passenger went upon the rocks, and all were lost.

Terrible was the grief of King Henry. Both his sons had died, and his daughter Matilda alone was left him. His pride and love were now centered in her, and he determined that she should succeed him and be queen of England. For this purpose he sought a powerful prince to whom he might marry

her, and chose Geoffrey, the young Duke of Anjou, brother of Alice. Geoffrey and Matilda had been married six years when Henry, the hope of his grandfather, was born.

When Henry I. died, Matilda was at the court of her husband in Anjou. The nearest claimant to the throne of England, after Matilda, was her cousin Stephen. He claimed the throne on the ground that, while Matilda was a woman, he was a man, and while Henry was a babe, he was of age and in the



ENGLISH POSSESSIONS UNDER HENRY II.

full powers of manhood. Though the barons had sworn to support Matilda, Stephen was welcomed by the people and was proclaimed king. His coronation was followed by a devastating civil war. Matilda was long unsuccessful in her attempts to obtain the throne of England for herself or her son, but finally an agreement was reached by which Stephen disinherited his own children and made young Henry his heir. The next year Stephen died, and Henry II., already Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou, became King of England. By his marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine (Āk'-wē-tān'), he added that vast province to his domain, making himself the greatest ruler in Europe,—the whole of England and more than half of France forming his possessions.

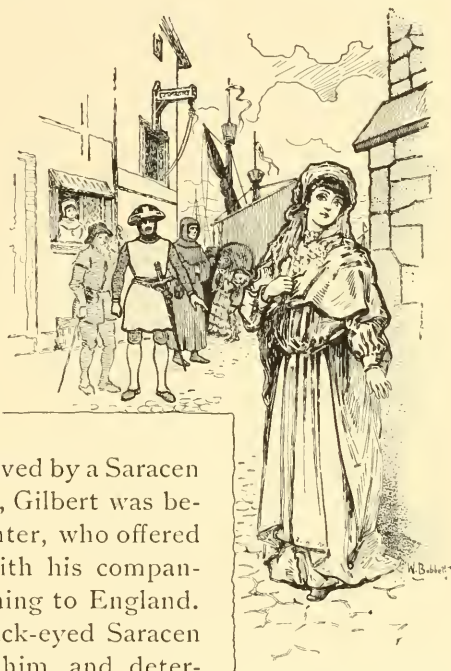
Stephen was the last of the four Norman kings. Henry II. was the first of a new line called the Angevin kings, or the family of Anjou. He was also called Plantagenet (Plān-tāj'-e-net), because the counts of Anjou wore in their helmets a bit of broom-plant—*plante* being the French word for “plant,” and *genêt* for “broom.” Henry II. was a foreign king, but he was also partly English. His grandfather, Henry I., had married Edith of Scotland, who could trace her line back to Alfred the Great, and this drop of English blood endeared Henry to his English subjects, making it much easier for him to govern his kingdom.

As soon as he came to the throne, Henry found that there was plenty of work for him to do. The long wars between Matilda and Stephen, the frequent struggles between Stephen and the barons, and Stephen's own worthlessness as king had left England weak and discouraged. The treasury was empty, and the people were taxed to the utmost; the laws were not enforced, and life and property were nowhere safe.

Henry proved himself an able king. He was ever busy. “He never sits down,” said a friend; “he is always on his legs

from morning till night." During his long reign England grew and prospered in spite of frequent quarrels between the king and his subjects. In the administration of the government he was greatly assisted by his right-hand man, the chancellor, Thomas à Becket.

An interesting and perhaps true story is told about Thomas's father and mother. Gilbert à Becket was a young and rich London merchant who, with a single companion named Richard, traveled in the far East. He fell into misfortune, was captured, and was enslaved by a Saracen prince. While in captivity, Gilbert was beloved by his master's daughter, who offered to help him escape, and with his companion he succeeded in returning to England. Though he forgot the black-eyed Saracen maiden, she remembered him and determined to follow him even to the ends of the earth. Leaving home, she hastened to the wharves, and by crying, "Gilbert! Gilbert!" attracted the attention of some English sailors. The only other English word she knew was "London," and the sailors, taking compassion on her, carried her to the capital of England. Here again she took up the cry of "Gilbert! Gilbert!" and after days of wandering chanced to meet Richard as she was passing Becket's house. Her wanderings were over, for Gilbert, on the



THE SARACEN MAIDEN  
IN LONDON.

advice of the bishop, married her, and she became the mother of Thomas à Becket, the future chancellor and archbishop of England.

Young Thomas was well educated as a rich man's son, and at his father's death inherited great wealth. He was of a religious nature, but was not trained as either priest or monk. Though his outer robes were soft and rich, he wore next to the skin a hair shirt, in order that its roughness might remind him of his sins. He was a strong, athletic man of fine countenance and striking appearance. With the nobles he was very popular, and even the king attended his banquets.

Such a man quickly attracted the attention of King Henry. He saw that Becket would be of great assistance to him, and he accordingly made him his chancellor, or prime minister. Whatever the king determined, the duty of the chancellor was to see that it was done. The wealth of Becket was also of advantage to the king; it prevented the chancellor from desiring to make use of the royal money, and it permitted him to rival kings in his pomp and magnificence.

On one occasion Henry sent his chancellor to the king of France to ask him to give his daughter Margaret in marriage to Prince Henry, the heir of England. Becket set out, attended by two hundred men on horseback clad in armor and gay robes. Following them, each drawn by five horses, came eight wagons filled with provisions and necessities for travel. Two contained only casks of ale, an English drink which the French greatly prized; one was fitted up for a kitchen, and another for a chapel. The procession was magnificent in the extreme, and it caused the people to say, "If such be the chancellor, what must the king be!"

Closely associated as the king and his chancellor were, the king did not understand Becket. As chancellor, Becket knew no law save that of his king, and Henry supposed that this

would be true in whatever position Becket was placed. In order to be absolutely supreme in England, Henry found that he must accomplish one more thing. He must make the Church subordinate to him. The head of the Church in England was the Archbishop of Canterbury, and he claimed to be as surely the spiritual ruler of the people of England as Henry was their temporal king. It so happened that the Archbishop of Canterbury died while Becket was at the court of France. Henry determined to make his faithful chancellor the new archbishop, trusting that thus he could control the Church. He sent for Becket and privately offered him the position. Becket, pointing to his gorgeous apparel, said, "You are choosing a pretty dress to figure as the head of your monks of Canterbury. If you do as you say, my lord, you will soon hate me as much as you love me now, for you assume an authority in church affairs to which I should not consent."

Henry did not heed the warning; perhaps he thought the chancellor was joking. Becket was chosen for the position and duly consecrated. The magnificent banquets were at an end, the gay robes were laid aside, and the archbishop's dress was assumed. Becket was consistent and honest. As chancellor he obeyed every order of his master the king; as archbishop he devoted every energy to the strengthening of the Church. A quarrel was not slow in coming.

For many centuries the Church had had a peculiar privilege; it had been permitted to try all churchmen who had been accused of any offense. By churchmen were meant not only bishops and priests and monks, but every clerk and servant in their employ. For example, if an ignorant woodsman, cutting wood for his master, the bishop, was accused of murdering a fellow-laborer, he was tried only in the church courts. This law had some peculiar results. Among the worst was that rogues and criminals were able to escape due punishment from the king's courts

by claiming that they were churchmen. The king and his friends asserted that the church courts were not just; that their punishments were not always in proportion to the crime; and that all the people should be treated alike and tried in the same courts. King Henry was honest in his beliefs and claims, and his ideas are accepted in civilized countries to-day. Archbishop



CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

Becket, though we think him mistaken, was also honest and sincere. He believed that he was upholding God and His will in preventing the first step toward weakening the power of the Church.

Henry summoned his councilors to meet at Clarendon to revise the ancient laws. He presented a set of resolutions called



the Constitutions of Clarendon, which distinctly set forth the laws and powers of the king's courts, and asked his councilmen to sign an agreement to these resolutions. The bishops at first agreed among themselves that it was a just request, but they carried the matter to the archbishop for advice. Strongly and persistently Becket said, "No." He would sign the constitution only after the words "saving our order" were inserted. By this he meant that he would uphold all laws of the kingdom, except those that interfered with the privileges of the Church. The king was even more persistent than the archbishop, and Becket finally yielded and signed. Hardly had the ink become dry upon his pen, when Becket repented of what he considered his sin. He inflicted severe penance upon himself, and remained concealed at Canterbury until he had persuaded the Pope to absolve him. Then he announced to King Henry that his signature was valueless because of the absolution granted him by the Pope.

The quarrel became very bitter. Becket feared for his life and fled to France. Here he remained several years, sometimes upheld by the Pope, sometimes urged by him to yield; sometimes supported by the king of France, sometimes in great danger when King Louis wished to please the king of England. Finally Henry found that he must have an archbishop of Canterbury. During Becket's absence there was no government of the Church, and human nature showed itself in quarrels among the bishops and priests; so Henry called Becket back to England. The archbishop returned, realizing that it was at the risk of his life.

Becket at once incurred the hatred of the king by punishing some bishops who had obeyed the king's orders. When Henry heard of this act, he forgot himself in his anger, and exclaimed, "Will none of the cowards who eat my bread rid me of the low-born priest?" Four knights who heard this complaint consid-

cred it an order and hurried at once to Canterbury. Becket knew of their coming, but refused to let the churchmen barricade the cathedral. When the knights burst into the church, they called out, "Where is the traitor Becket?" In all his dignity, Becket stepped before them, saying, "Here is the archbishop, but no traitor." In spite of the sanctity of the place the knights murdered him with shocking brutality.



THE ATTACK ON ARCHBISHOP BECKET.

Henry's hasty remark had brought its natural result. At the same time it proved a death-blow to the Constitutions of Clarendon. The Pope declared the dead bishop a saint. The churchmen considered Becket a martyr in a righteous cause, and were thereby strengthened in their determination to resist the king. The people of England, feeling that Becket was one of them, as he had risen from the common ranks, and remem-

bering the archbishop's liberality to the poor and his kindness to all classes, almost without exception agreed with the churchmen that he was a martyr. Henry was displeased by the reverence paid to his memory, and ordered that he should not be called Saint Thomas of Canterbury, but Bishop Thomas à Becket.



THE SIGN OF A CANTERBURY PILGRIM.\*

Misfortunes seemed to follow Henry for several years after the murder of Becket, and he felt compelled to make a pilgrimage to Canterbury, and even to order the monks to beat him over the shoulders with a knotted cord. As a final absolution, he began preparations to go on a crusade to help recover Jerusalem from the infidels.

King Henry's command made little change in the attitude of the people. No saint in England was ever more popular than Saint Thomas of Canterbury, and the successes that followed the king's penance were thought to be due to the intervention of the saint. A magnificent chapel was erected to his memory in the new cathedral at Canterbury, and miracles were claimed to be wrought at his grave. For centuries pilgrimages were made to his tomb by rich and poor, by kings and by the common people. The first great poem in the English language, Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," is the story of one such pilgrimage to the shrine of Thomas à Becket.

Tell how William the Conqueror divided his possessions among his three sons.

Describe the character of William Rufus.

Explain the fulfilment of the Conqueror's prophecy.

Tell the story of the *White Ship*.

State the claims of the two rivals to the throne of England—Stephen and Matilda.

Explain the meanings of the words "Angevin" and "Plantagenet."

\* These "signs," or brooches, on which was represented the head of Saint Thomas, were worn by Canterbury pilgrims.

Describe Henry's character and the beginning of his reign.

Tell the story of the Saracen maiden.

Describe Becket's character ; his extravagance ; his journey to France ; his appointment as archbishop.

Explain the quarrel between Henry and the Church.

Give an account of the Constitutions of Clarendon.

Describe Becket's remorse : his flight ; his return ; his death.

State the results of Becket's death.

By the law of primogeniture, to whom did the throne belong—Stephen or Matilda? Of what nationalities were the kings of England previous to Henry II.? We are not certain of the truth of the story of the Saracen maiden ; is it a probable story? Is a rich man less likely to steal from the government than a poor man? What was meant by Becket's expression, "saving our order"?



A STRAY OF THE BROOM-PLANT.



## CHAPTER VII.

# Richard Lion-heart.

1157-1199.

WHILE Henry II. was strengthening his kingdom and quarreling with his former friend the archbishop, he was having plenty of trouble in his own family. Each of his four sons was at one time or another engaged in rebellion against him. Henry, the eldest, gave his father the most anxiety. At one time the king unwisely had young Henry crowned, so that there might be no question of the succession when he himself should die. After a time Prince Henry quarreled with his father and fled to France. There he called himself king of England, claiming that in crowning him his father had yielded the throne to him. The prince was married to a daughter of Louis VII., and consequently obtained assistance from France. A petty war followed, broken now and then by pretended reconciliation between father and son, but not really ended until Prince Henry died, several years before his father.

The second son, Richard, was associated with his older

brother in this quarrel with their father. The third son, Geoffrey, was also engaged in the rebellion, and died two years before his brother Henry. Even after both Henry and Geoffrey had died, Richard continued the war, until finally King Henry determined to make peace on whatever terms he could. A treaty was drawn up in which Richard was acknowledged as heir, and Richard's followers agreed to swear allegiance once more to Henry. At the end of the treaty were the signatures of the leaders of the rebellion.

"Who are they, the ungrateful traitors? Let me hear their names," cried the king, when the treaty was read to him.

The secretary began, "John, Count of Montain."

"John! John! It cannot be true! My beloved son; he whom I cherished beyond the rest! Can he also have deserted me?"

When told that it was true, he said faintly, "Let the rest go as it will; I care not what becomes of me or the world."

King Henry, after a brilliant reign of thirty-five years, died deserted by all his family. His last words were, "Shame, shame on a conquered king. Cursed be the day I was born." Richard alone mourned for his father; in the agony of his remorse he cried, "Yes, it is I who killed him."

Richard succeeded his father as king of England and ruler of half of France. England saw little of her new king; during the eleven years of his reign Richard spent but eight months on the island, making two short visits. The first was for the coronation and to obtain the necessary funds to carry out his father's wish to go on a crusade.

The crusaders were bands and armies of men who "took the cross," as it was said, and went to rescue the Holy Land from the Saracens. The first crusade had taken place about a century before the time of Richard, and had resulted in the capture of Jerusalem and the establishment of a Christian king-



dom in Palestine. A few years before the accession of Richard, however, the Mohammedan Turks had attacked and conquered the kingdom, and had made Jerusalem a Turkish province. It was to recover Jerusalem to Christianity that Richard and his allies undertook this third crusade.

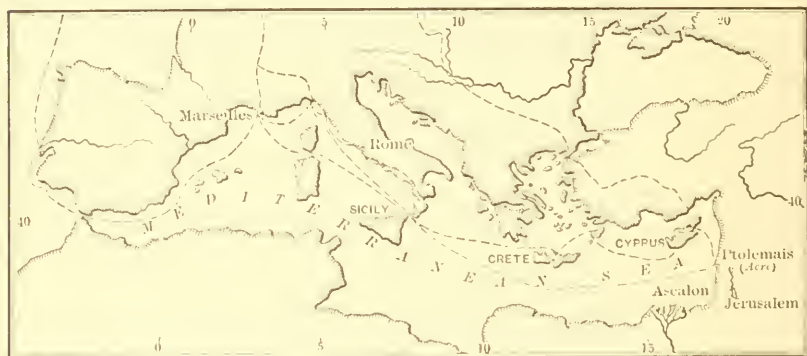
Richard entered into the expedition with the greatest enthusiasm, seeming to care more for the crusade than for his own kingdom of England. He made use of every means for obtaining money; he sold rights and favors to the nobles, and allowed many cities to purchase the privilege of self-government. When some one criticised the king for selling so much, Richard exclaimed, "I would sell London itself if I could find a purchaser."

When all was ready, Richard crossed the Channel with a large army, and made a union with Philip Augustus, king of France. The two armies set out together and marched to the Mediterranean coast. There they embarked in two great fleets and set sail for Sicily. Meanwhile Emperor Frederick of Germany, who had also taken the crusader's vow, had preceded his allies. He reached Asia Minor, only to be drowned in a little river in Cilicia (Se-lish'-e-a).

From Sicily the allied fleet sailed eastward. Philip Augustus arrived safely at Acre in Syria, but one of Richard's vessels was separated from the others in a storm, and wrecked upon the coast of the island of Cyprus. Comnenus, the so-called emperor of the island, showed the shipwrecked people great discourtesy, ill-treated the crew, and forbade the princesses to land. When Richard heard of his cruelty, he forgot the crusade for a time, and sailing at once for Cyprus, he conquered the entire island, and captured the Emperor Comnenus. To please the captured ruler, Richard granted his one request, that his chains should be of silver and not of iron. These chains Comnenus bore with great dignity the four remaining years of his life.

Expecting to receive aid from Europe, Guy de Lusignan (Gī deh Lu-sēn-yōn'), the former king of Jerusalem, had already laid siege to the city of Acre, a formidable stronghold on the coast. Leopold of Austria arrived first with the remnant of Frederick's army; next came Philip Augustus. These additional forces simply increased the famine among the besiegers; but when Richard arrived, he brought supplies from the newly captured island of Cyprus.

King Richard took up the siege with energy, but troubles



THE ROUTE OF THE THIRD CRUSADE.

soon broke out in camp. Philip Augustus became jealous because so many of the French soldiers deserted to join the English, attracted by Richard's brilliant deeds of daring. The climate also proved unhealthful, and both kings were attacked by fever.

A story that is told of how Richard obtained the nourishing food he needed, better illustrates the courtesy of the enemy than the truthfulness of the English. Richard sent a deputy to the camp of Saladin, the Mohammedan caliph, who had come to the neighborhood in the hope of relieving the city. The deputy, meeting Saladin's brother Aftal, said: "It is the custom of

our kings to make each other presents even in time of war. My master wishes to offer something worthy of the Sultan."

"The present shall be well received," replied Aftal, "so that we offer other in return."

"We have falcon and other birds of prey," said the deputy, "which have suffered much from the voyage and are dying of hunger. Would it please you to give us some poultry to feed them? When recovered they shall be a gift to the Sultan."

"Say, rather," returned Aftal, "that your master is ill and wishes for poultry. He shall have what he will."

Not only was the promise kept, but presents of Damascus pears, Syrian grapes, and mountain snow were sent to the camp. On his recovery, King Richard pushed the siege with vigor, and Saladin was compelled to surrender the city. After



SALADIN.

a three years' siege the Christians entered Acre, and the French and English standards were planted on the tallest towers.

One act of King Richard at this time had great effect upon his future life, as we shall see. When Duke Leopold of Austria, assuming the rights of a king, planted his standard also upon the wall, the anger of Richard was aroused. He ordered that the flag be torn down and thrown into the ditch. Leopold

was unable to retaliate, but he brooded over the insult, and waited his time for revenge, that came all too soon for Richard.

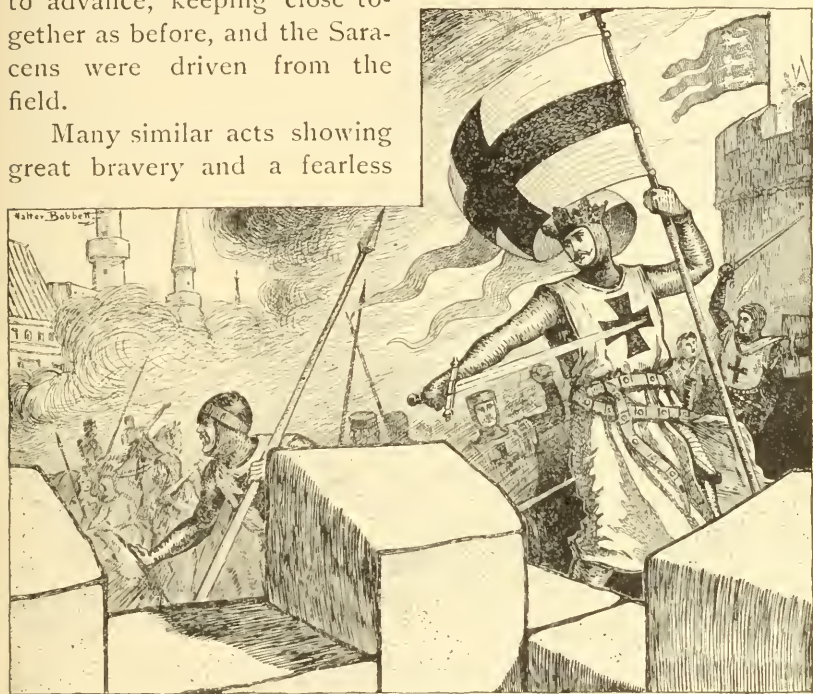
Philip Augustus became more and more jealous of the growing popularity of King Richard, and when Acre was taken, he declared that he had fulfilled his vow and was going home. When Richard heard of Philip's intentions, he said, "If my brother, the king, feels ill, or is afraid of dying in Palestine, I should be loath to keep him, but I should consider it an eternal disgrace to turn back before the work is accomplished." The king of France returned to his country, however, while Richard attacked and conquered Ascalon (Äs'-ka-lön). Before proceeding further, he determined to repair the fortifications of that city. The soldiers grumbled at doing this work, but Richard worked with them, and called upon Duke Leopold to do the same. Leopold's sulky reply, "I am not the son of a mason," so angered Richard that he struck the duke. Thereupon Leopold also left the army, and led his forces home.

Richard continued to march toward Jerusalem, but he was again taken sick with the fever. His army had been so weakened by the withdrawals of Philip Augustus, Leopold, and other leaders, that it was evidently much too small to accomplish its purpose. The king reached the very neighborhood of Jerusalem, but felt compelled even then to give up the contest. When the soldiers asked to proceed a short distance and see Jerusalem, Richard replied, "Alas! those who are not worthy to win the holy city are not worthy to behold it."

During the entire crusade Richard had met with many discouragements, but he ever earned the right to be called "the lion-hearted." At one time he with a small band was separated from the main army, when he was attacked by the Saracens with a force seven times his own. Undaunted, the king formed his little band into a compact body, the knights resting on one knee, holding their shields over them, and pointing their lances

outward. Between each two knights he placed an archer with an assistant to load his crossbow; he himself stood in the center encouraging his men, and threatening to kill the first who showed fear. Attack after attack was made by the Saracens, but each time they were repelled. Finally Richard ordered his force to advance, keeping close together as before, and the Saracens were driven from the field.

Many similar acts showing great bravery and a fearless



RICHARD AT THE SIEGE OF ACRE.

courage placed him, in the opinion of the Saracens, in the first rank of the Christian warriors. His name was feared, as well as respected, by all the Turks of Asia. In fact, it is said that for many centuries Saracen mothers used to quiet their children with King Richard's name. "Behave, or Melik Rik will be

after you," was sufficient to frighten the naughtiest child into obedience.

A treaty was made between the Sultan and Richard, by which pilgrims were to be allowed free access to Jerusalem. The treaty was drawn up in accordance with certain peculiar customs of the Saracens, to last for three years, three months, three weeks, three days, three hours, and three minutes. When Richard sailed from Palestine, shedding tears as its shores receded in the distance, he exclaimed, " Oh, Holy Land, I commend thee and thy people unto God! May He grant me yet to return and aid thee."

Richard's misfortunes were not ended. Having been shipwrecked, he was captured by Duke Leopold and imprisoned in one of the castles in Germany. A pretty story, that may be true, is told of the way in which he was found by his friends. Richard had been educated in southern France, and was skilled in composing the troubadour songs of that region. One of these songs that he prized highly was known only to himself and his companion Blondel (*Blôn'-dél'*). When Blondel learned that Richard was confined in some German castle, he sought out these castles one by one, and standing under the windows, sang the first stanza of the favorite song. One day his patience was rewarded, for as he stood by a castle wall, even before he began to sing, he heard the voice of his beloved friend singing that first stanza. Blondel immediately took up the second stanza, and thus Richard knew that his imprisonment would soon be over.

Nor was Richard mistaken, for all England, except his brother John, greatly loved its warrior king. The Pope was appealed to, that he might influence the emperor to release King Richard, and vast sums of money were collected for his ransom. Henry, the emperor, was compelled to bring him to trial on the charges which were brought against him, and all of



them were quickly found to be causeless. Henry set free his captive and accepted the ransom.

On his return to England Richard was received with the greatest rejoicing. His brother John had attempted to obtain the kingdom during his absence, but had failed, and had even been convicted of treason while Richard was on his way home. John hastened to declare his repentance, and beg his brother's forgiveness. Richard, remembering his own rebellion, frankly forgave him, saying, "Would that I could forget your offense as soon as you will forget my forgiveness!"

Richard had been in England less than two months when war with Philip Augustus called him to Normandy. Philip was defeated in this war, but Richard was obliged, by continued rebellions, to remain in France. Nor-



RICHARD LION-HEART.

mandy, especially, was restless under the rule of a duke who was considered a foreigner. In order to hold Normandy, Richard built a huge fortress, whose ruins still show it to have been one of the strongest of the Middle Ages. Richard was very proud of it and called it his "pretty child"; but Philip watched its walls rise with increasing anger. "I would take it, were its walls of iron," he exclaimed. "I would hold it, were its walls of butter," Richard returned.

The ransom of the king was so enormous that every Englishman was compelled to contribute a fourth part of his property ; the many wars and Richard's new castle nearly drained the country of money, and at last the people refused to furnish more. Once, when in special need, Richard heard that a treasure had been discovered by one of his barons. According to the laws of the day, the finder should turn over such treasure to the king ; but the baron refused, saying that " treasure in gold belonged to the king, while treasure in silver should be halved." In the attack on the castle that followed the king was fatally wounded by an arrow shot from the walls. The fortress was captured, and all the garrison were put to death, except the youth who shot the arrow. He was brought to King Richard as he lay dying.

" What have I done that you should seek my life ?" said the king.

" With your own hand you slew my father and my two brothers," replied the youth. " Torture me as you will, I shall die content, if I know that I have slain one who has inflicted so many miseries on mankind."

Richard always admired bravery wherever he saw it. " Take off his chains," he ordered. " I forgive him because he believes he has been wronged." With this act of generosity, Richard Lion-heart, the hero of the third crusade, died after a reign of eleven years.

Describe Henry's rebellion ; Richard's rebellion.

Tell the story of the last days of Henry II.

Explain the crusades.

Describe Richard's preparations.

Give an account of the shipwreck of the crusaders and its results.

Describe the siege of Acre.

Give an account of the interview between the Turk and the Christian.

State the causes for the departure of Philip Augustus ; the departure of Leopold.

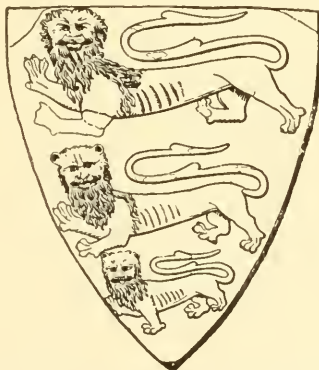
Give an illustration of Richard's bravery.

Describe the treaty with the Turks.

Tell the story of Blondel's quest.

Give an account of the last days of King Richard.

Why did King Henry love John the best of his sons? Which did Henry consider of more importance, a successful reign or a happy family? How did Richard help the common people of England? Was the help intentional? Was the request of Comnenus a sensible one? Are truly brave men jealous of the bravery of others? Were the Turks always without humanity? How strong was the crusading spirit in the hearts of Philip Augustus and Leopold? Was it physical courage alone that won Richard's battles? Are there any improbabilities in the story of Blondel's quest?



THE ROYAL ARMS OF ENGLAND FROM  
RICHARD I. TO EDWARD III.



## CHAPTER VIII.

# John.

1166-1216.

DURING the many hundreds of years of its history, England has had many rulers. Its kings, like other men, have been of all sorts and descriptions—some good, some bad, and some of little account. If we were asked to name the model king of England, we should agree on Alfred as being all that a king ought to be. If we seek for a ruler who was all that a king should not be, we find him in John. Alfred was a model king because he was unselfish; whatever he did was for the best interests of the nation. As a result, he established his kingdom firmly, and at the same time made his own power secure. John, on the other hand, was selfish, and cared for no other interest than his own. As a result, the country grew weaker throughout his reign, and he himself lost all power.

One of Alfred's most noticeable traits was his ability to win the friendship of all classes. He desired to make a united kingdom, to have each of his subjects ready to stand by him in all

emergencies. John, both before and after taking the throne, quarreled with everybody. We have read how his rebellion broke his father's heart; and we have seen how, when his brother was a captive and in prison, John showed himself a traitor. When Richard died, John seized the throne and ignored the claims of his nephew Arthur.

This young prince was called Arthur of Brittany, because his mother was the duchess of that province. His father was Geoffrey, the third son of Henry II. According to modern custom, he alone had the right to the throne. John, being the youngest son of his father, had no right whatever so long as Arthur lived. Notwithstanding, the people of England, though they hated John, could not, or did not, make any opposition when he seized the throne. John was on the spot and was a man grown, while Arthur was across the sea in France and was a child.

In France, conditions were different. On the death of Richard, Arthur was immediately proclaimed Count of Anjou. Normandy also would not accept John, and the king of France upheld the rights of Arthur. Naturally, John was not content to rule only the smallest part of his kingdom. In the war that followed, Arthur was defeated and fell into the hands of his uncle, who immediately began to scheme how to destroy him. With Arthur dead there would be no longer a claimant to the throne.

The twelve-year-old prince was shut up in a castle. Fortunately his keeper became attached to the boy, and for some time he was able to frustrate the plans of the wicked uncle. At one time John tried to persuade Arthur to trust himself to him.

"Will you not trust to the gentleness, the friendship, and the truthfulness of your loving uncle?" asked the king.

"Let him restore to me my kingdom of England, and then come and ask the question," replied Arthur.

This spirited answer greatly incensed the king, who determined that nothing should now prevent the death of the prince. Once he sent a ruffian to put out Arthur's eyes, knowing that the English people would never accept a blind ruler. The



*From the painting by Northcote.*

PRINCE ARTHUR AND THE RUFFIAN.

kind jailer prevented this cruel deed. Several other attempts failed, but at last the boy disappeared. It was whispered that the king himself had killed Arthur. Whether this was so or not no one was ever able to discover, but John surely would not have hesitated to do so dreadful a thing if he thought it was for his interests. At any rate there was no longer a claimant to the English throne; John had reached the height of his ambition, and was sole ruler of all his father's possessions.

Many years before,

when he was a child, his father had divided his possessions among the three oldest boys, and had laughingly said to his youngest, "We shall have to call you Lackland, for there is nothing left for you." Now John had it all; but he was not to keep it.

The king of France, who claimed to be the overlord of all the French provinces, whether owned by French noblemen or



the king of England, began to investigate the ugly rumors concerning John. He ordered the king to come before him for trial for the murder of Arthur. John did not dare to go. Therefore the French king declared that John's territories in France were forfeited, and with a large army he took possession of Normandy and Anjou, leaving to John nothing but a small province in the southern part of France.

The story is told that John, while on a hunting trip, became mired in a slough near the ancient town of Alnwick (Ān'-nīk). His anger was terrible, and from spite he swore that all the freemen of the town should have the same experience. Consequently, when the young men became of age, they were compelled, in all their holiday dress, to flounder through this stagnant pool. This strange ceremony, called "going through the well," continued almost up to the present day.

It is not surprising that a man with such a temper should be in a continual quarrel. The power of the old council, the Witan, had ceased, and there was no high authority to say him nay in anything. John ruled without law; he oppressed all classes. He compelled the nobles to give him their treasure, and sought to control the Church in order that he might use its wealth. He set about this in very much the same way as his father had. The bishops had elected a new archbishop of Canterbury; the king declared this election void, and demanded that one of his own dependants should be appointed to fill the position. This was done. The matter being referred to Rome, the Pope declared both elections illegal, and ordered the bishops to elect Stephen Langton, a man of great learning and holiness.

Now, of all men in his kingdom, John hated Langton the most. The quarrel waxed hot and furious. John refused to permit Langton to act, and the question was once more referred to the Pope. Consequently, because John refused to obey the command of the head of the Church, who assumed power over

all kings and princes, he was excommunicated. Not only was the king excluded from the communion and all other rights and privileges of the Church, but the whole nation was forced to suffer for the wilfulness of its ruler. England was placed under an interdict. For six years no church-bells were rung throughout the land, church services were not held, and the dead were buried only in unconsecrated ground.

Not in the least cared John. He had no more reverence for God than he had for man. Finally, as a further punishment, the Pope deposed him and gave England to the son of the king of France. Even then John laughed at the Pope, but when an army was collected to attack England, he became frightened and yielded everything. He begged the Pope's forgiveness; he promised to receive Langton; and even took the extraordinary step of giving his kingdom to the Pope and receiving it back as a fief. Thus by humiliating himself and his kingdom he won the good will of the Pope and saved himself at the last moment.

Every act of John made him enemies. The barons had been opposed to him from the beginning of his reign, and he had taken no pains to gain their friendship. They were becoming more powerful every year, and more and more Englishmen, with English interests and tastes. They saw that John was doing as great an injury to the whole people as to themselves. At last, under the leadership of Stephen Langton, they demanded that John sign a paper stating what were the rights of the English people, and restoring to them their liberties.

The plans of the nobles were made so secretly that John was taken completely by surprise. "Why do they not ask my kingdom?" he cried. "I will never grant such liberties as will make me a slave." When he found that not only the barons, but the whole people were against him, and that on his side were but seven knights, he was forced to yield. A council was held on a marshy meadow, called Runnymede (Rūn'-ī-mēd),



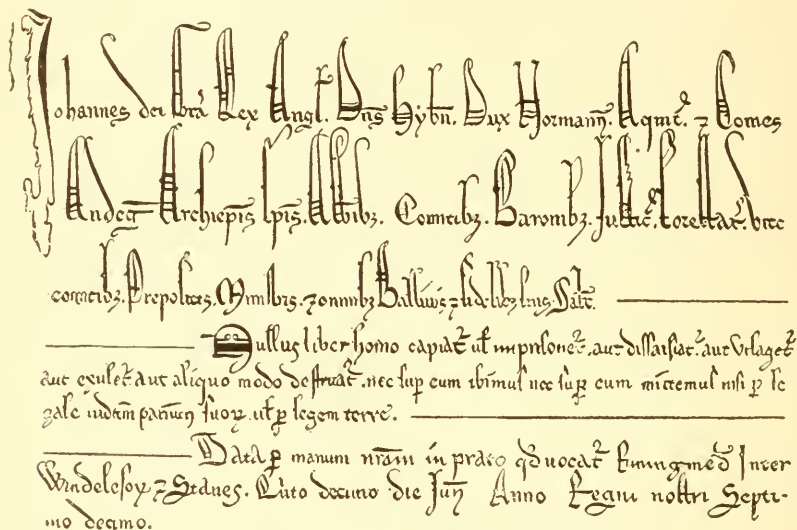
*From the painting by Chappell.*

KING JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CARTA.

on the banks of the Thames. John was angry and vowed vengeance, but the barons were firm. Sulkily he placed his name at the foot of the paper which they had drawn up. The great charter, or Magna Carta, as it is called from its Latin name,

was thus signed on the 15th of June, 1215. This is the fourth great date of English history—the laying of the foundation of English liberties.

By the charter the king promised that no person should be imprisoned unless he had a legal trial, and that all Englishmen, peasant and noble, should have the same free and speedy justice. He also agreed that henceforth no taxes should be



Iohannes dei gra Rex Angl. Dux Hybr. Dux Normann. Aquit. & Comes  
Andeg. Archiepiscopus Eborac. Comes. Barones. Iudices. Cancellarius. Comes  
comitibus. Prepositus. Milites. & omnes Balliivi & iudices & alii. —————  
Nullus liber homo capiatur vel imprisonetur. aut dissolvatur. aut velaretur  
aut exuletur. aut aliquo modo destratur. nec super eum ibimus nec super eum mittemus nisi per  
legalem iudicium parium suorum. ut per legem terre. —————  
Dati per manum nostram in praesentia quatuordecim Inter  
Windesore & Radnes. Quarto decimo die Junij Anno Regni nostri Septi-  
mo decimo.

FAC-SIMILE EXTRACT FROM MAGNA CARTA.

levied by himself without the consent of a national council. Ever since John signed this charter, the first of these provisions has been deemed just and right among all English-speaking peoples, and the second has kept England's kings from becoming absolute rulers.

The barons had little faith in John's honesty. Consequently, they appointed twenty-four of their number as a council to see that he kept his pledges. "They have given me twenty-four

over-kings," John cried in a rage, and he quietly set to work to become their master. Scarcely had he left Runnymede before he announced that he did not consider the signing of the charter of any importance, as he had been forced to sign it. Therefore he would not keep it. The nobles were not surprised. They declared that they would no longer consider themselves his subjects, and offered the crown of England to King Louis of France. John was making preparations to resist Louis when he died, as he had lived, "a knight without truth, a king without justice, a Christian without faith," as an old record says.

His oldest son became king of England as Henry III.

State some of the differences between Alfred and John.

Tell the story of Prince Arthur.

Show how John lost his possessions in France.

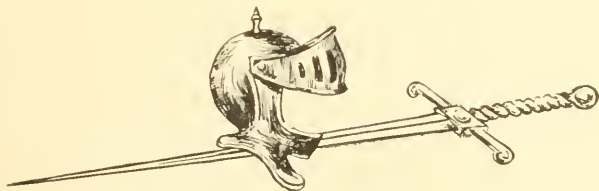
Give an account of the contest between John and the nobles.

Tell the story of the quarrel between John and the Pope.

State what you can of the rights granted to the English people by Magna Carta.

Describe John's last days.

Is it for a ruler's own advantage to work for the good of his people? Is it probable that Arthur would have made a better king than John? What two kings of England were each a fourth son? Why did not John attempt to retain Normandy and Anjou? What reasons did John probably have for his bitter hatred of Langton? Why was John's action humiliating to both himself and his kingdom? What were the first three great dates in English history? Who had the more happy life, Alfred or John?





## CHAPTER IX.

# Simon de Montfort.

1200(?)–1265.

WHEN Henry III. came to the throne, England for the first time in more than two hundred years had a boy for its king. Henry was but nine years old when his father died, and the real government of England was in the hands of first one and then another of his guardians. Such continual change was bad for the kingdom, but matters grew much worse when the king became of age and ruled for himself. He was changeable and never to be trusted; he was extravagant and fond of display. He wasted the resources of his kingdom, and constantly quarreled with the nobles who tried to prevent him from ruining the country by his enormous taxations. The nobles had various leaders, but for more than forty years they were unable to hold the king within bounds. Finally a real leader came to the front. The work which he did was almost the only good accomplished during Henry's long reign of fifty-six years.

Simon de Montfort was a younger son of a Frenchman, whose



wife was heiress to the earldom of Leicester (Lēs'-ter) in England. When Simon's father died, the king of France would not allow the heir to retain both the estate in France and the earldom in England. He must choose between the two. The older brother, preferring to remain a Frenchman, gave Simon the rights to the English earldom, and he went to England to obtain possession. Both Henry and his father had collected for many years the revenue from the estate of Leicester, and the king was loath to turn it over to the rightful owner. However, Simon's ability to win friends not only overcame the king's reluctance, but won the affections of the king's sister. Simon became the king's brother-in-law as well as Earl of Leicester.

The marriage was at first kept secret, because it was well known that the English nobles would resent such honor being given to a stranger who was not of royal blood. When the news finally came out, a party was formed under the leadership of Richard of Cornwall, brother of the king, to oppose De Montfort. Simon by his tact easily won the friendship of Richard; the opposing party broke up, and before long the earl became the most popular of the English nobles.

No one could keep the king as a friend for any length of time. He became jealous of the growing power of the earl, and a quarrel followed, which lasted many years. The earl was obliged to leave England and seek refuge in France. But Simon at a distance did not seem so terrible as Simon in England, and the king made him governor of Gascony in the southern part of France, the only province that had been left to England by the misrule of John. The Gascony nobles were in revolt—"they rode the country by night like thieves"—and a firm hand was required to control them. For four years Simon spent his time in hunting down these robber bands. Henry refused to send him aid, either money or men, and the earl was forced to use

his own treasure. Finally he returned to England, refusing to ruin himself further. His interview with the king was exceedingly stormy. Simon demanded the return of the money which he had spent in the king's service.

The king hotly replied, "Be sure that I shall not keep any agreement with thee, thou unworthy traitor and supplanter;

for it is lawful to withdraw from an agreement with one who breaks it."

"I am no traitor, and but thou bearest the name of king, it would have been a bad hour for thee when thou utterdest such a word," declared the earl.

The king, almost beside himself with rage, cried, "I never repented of aught so much as I now repent

me that I ever allowed thee to enter England, or to hold any land or honor in this country, where thou hast fattened so as to kick against me."

Simon's arrest would have followed if the king had not feared the nobles. A peace was patched up between them, and Simon went back to Gascony. He did not stay long, and on his return he took the leading place among the nobles in opposition to the king. Henry quickly recognized that at last he had a skillful opponent.

One day Henry went down the Thames in a boat to take his



THE CASTLE OF AN ENGLISH BARON.

dinner out of doors. Suddenly the sky became overcast, and a terrific storm came on. The king greatly feared a thunder-shower, and he directed his rowers to land him at a palace on the river bank where the Earl of Leicester was staying.

The earl hastened to greet him, saying, "What is it thou fearest? The storm is now past."

The king answered, "The thunder and lightning I fear beyond measure, but I fear thee more than all the thunder and lightning in the world."

"My lord," replied the earl, "it is unjust that thou shouldst fear me, who am ever faithful to thee and thine and to the kingdom of England. It is thine enemies, thy destroyers and false flatterers, that thou oughtest to fear."

The nobles had become more and more exasperated at the extravagance of the king. At last they declared that it should not continue longer. A Parliament—a meeting for speaking together similar to the old Saxon Witan, or council of the wise men—was held, and the presence of the king was demanded. When he entered the hall, a general clanking of swords was heard.

"Am I a prisoner?" asked the king.

One of the nobles replied, "No, but we must have reform."

The king was forced to grant their demands, but this did not make peace between them. At one time an appeal was made to the king of France to settle the disputes as an arbitrator. Inasmuch as an arbitrator is supposed, upon hearing both sides of a dispute, to decide impartially which side is right and which is wrong, King Louis was hardly the proper man to choose for this purpose. He had been engaged all his life in fighting the nobles of France, and had succeeded in establishing almost absolute power over them. As might have been expected, the verdict was in favor of King Henry. The nobles refused to accept the decision, and the quarrel broke out in actual war.

For the first time in the history of England the people and the king were at war with each other. All previous civil wars had been between rival claimants to the throne. The war lasted

several months, and was ended by the battle of Lewes (Loo'-is). The battle was really won through a ruse of Earl Simon's. He had a strong carriage made, and in it were placed two Londoners who were especially active in the cause of the king. The royal forces believed that Earl Simon himself was in the carriage. The barons' army kept up the deception by saying, "The earl has determined to keep behind us, and he refuses to go out with us to fight as he promised. We are therefore very suspicious about him, for he pretends to be so ill that he cannot mount his horse. Therefore we have caused this very strong carriage to be made, so that if we must needs die in battle he shall die with us."

The king's troops fought fiercely to capture the carriage. Driving away the opposing

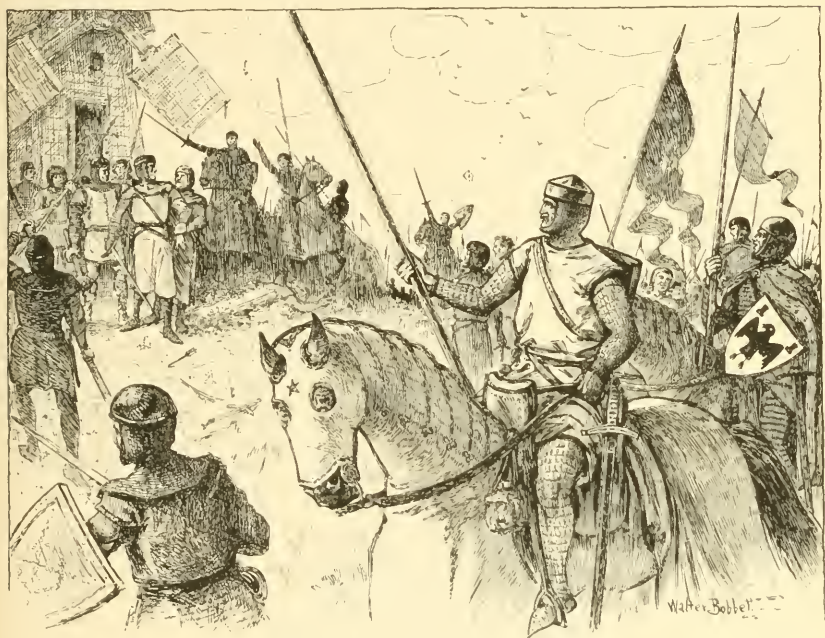


THE ROYAL STANDARD BEARER.

forces, they rushed upon it with great fury, crying, "Come out, Simon; come out of the carriage!" By the time the two frightened Londoners were able to show them their mistake, the rest of the barons' forces had come up. It was an easy matter to

overcome the exhausted troops, and Earl Simon, as leader, was completely victorious.

The king's brother, Richard of Cornwall, had taken refuge in a windmill. "Come down, come down, you wretched miller! Come out, unlucky master of the mill, come out!" the barons'



THE CAPTURE OF RICHARD OF CORNWALL.

troops tauntingly cried. "It is a great pity for you that you must be made a miller, you who so lately defied us poor barons to battle!" Not only Richard, but King Henry and his son, Prince Edward, were captured by the victorious army.

For a time the government of England was completely in the hands of Simon; but he soon realized that it would be a mis-



take to continue such an unusual condition. He had no proper authority. His every act might be said to be illegal. Accordingly he issued a call for a meeting of Parliament to take whatever action was necessary for the good of the country. This Parliament differed from all previous Parliaments. Simon not only invited the nobles, as in all other meetings of the national council, but also directed that each shire, or county, should send two knights as delegates, and that each borough, or town, should appoint two burgesses, or citizens, to represent them in the Parliament.

This meeting of representatives of the common people in Parliament was the first step in the formation of the House of Commons, that portion of the English Parliament which has become even more powerful than the other branch, the House of Lords, made up of the descendants of the old barons. This Parliament, commonly called Simon's Parliament, was held in 1265, just fifty years after the signing of Magna Carta, and was the second great movement in the establishment of the liberties of the people of England. The counties and towns were not again called upon to send representatives until thirty years later, but from that time to the present, the common people have taken part in the government of England.

Simon's Parliament is noted rather for its new members than for anything it accomplished. It did but little. Its most important act was the setting of Prince Edward at liberty, which was done with the probable intention of taking the government from the hands of the aged king. The act proved disastrous to the cause of the barons, for Prince Edward raised an army, attacked Earl Simon at Evesham (Ēvz'-am), conquered, and killed him. Simon's sons did not equal their father in wisdom or courage; no one was ready or fitted to take his place, and the barons made haste to beg forgiveness of the king and recover his good will.



But De Montfort's work was not lost. The king had been taught a lesson; he realized that he must not push the people too hard. He practically turned over the government to Prince Edward, who succeeded his father as king a few years later.

Describe the character of Henry III.

Tell the story of De Montfort and the earldom of Leicester; of De Montfort and the province of Gascony.

Give an account of the quarrel between the king and De Montfort.

Tell the story of the thunderstorm.

Give the reasons for the calling of Parliament and its results.

Give an account of the attempt to arbitrate.

Tell the story of the battle of Lewes.

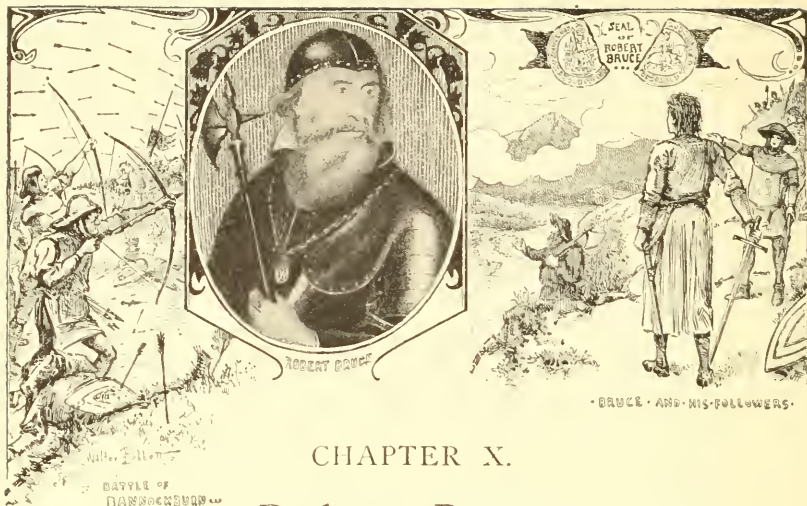
State the origin of the House of Commons.

Describe the end of the barons' war and its results.

Is a frequent change of rulers an injury to a country? Why did not the king of France permit the elder De Montfort to hold possessions in both countries? Why did the king refuse to assist Earl Simon when in Gascony? Had Henry a right to be angry with De Montfort when he came back from Gascony? Was not Henry in reality a prisoner when he came before Parliament? Could the nobles have had a worse arbitrator than King Louis? Which is the higher honor, to be a member of the House of Lords or the House of Commons? What were the permanent results of De Montfort's work? What were the first four great dates in English history?



THE SEAL OF SIMON DE MONTFORT.



## CHAPTER X.

# Robert Bruce.

1274-1329.

EDWARD I. was a king beloved by his people. He was as strong as his father was weak. He was a statesman, and his father was not. He loved his country, while Henry loved only himself. For the first time since the battle of Hastings the king was thoroughly English; for the first time the king understood his people, and the people understood their king. Even when people and king quarreled, each was seeking what seemed to be best for the kingdom. Though Edward keenly realized that England had lost the French possessions, he had no desire to recover them, and instead, he devoted himself to upbuilding and strengthening England herself.

He perceived that it would be of great advantage to England if the whole island were united. At the time of Edward I., as to-day, the island of Great Britain was composed of three divisions, England, Scotland, and Wales, but each was then independent of the other. At one time or another in the past

both Wales and Scotland had been under the control of the kings of England, but each had recovered its practical independence.

The ruler of Wales, whose name was Llewelyn-Ap-Griffith (Loo-él'-in-Ap-Grif'-fith), had assumed the title of Prince of Wales. An old prophecy said that when English money became round a Prince of Wales would be crowned at London. Inasmuch as a new coinage of copper had just been made, and a law passed forbidding the breaking of the old silver penny into halves and quarters, the Welsh considered that the prophecy was about to be fulfilled.

Edward was unwilling to acknowledge that Wales was independent, or that anyone should hold the title of Prince of Wales, so he led an army into Wales and conquered the country almost without a battle. The Welsh nobles deserted their prince, and even Llewelyn's brother David joined the English army. Llewelyn was forced to yield, and Wales became subject to the king of England. A few years later David, dissatisfied with the pay that he had received from England, persuaded Llewelyn to rebel again. This time the English army met with greater resistance; but it was finally successful, and Wales and England have formed distinct parts of one kingdom from that day to this.

King Edward's son, Edward, who afterwards succeeded his father as king, was born in a castle in Wales. In order to gratify the Welshmen, Edward gave him the title of Prince of Wales, since he was born on Welsh soil. Thus was started the custom that has ever since continued, of calling the heir to the throne of England the Prince of Wales. In time this prince became king, and so the old prophecy was fulfilled.

Affairs in Scotland also seemed to favor the ambition of Edward. The good and well-beloved King Alexander III. died, leaving no children. His daughter Margaret had been

married to Eric, king of Norway, and they had one daughter, Margaret, the "Maid of Norway." The Scottish Parliament proclaimed this little maid Queen of Scotland, and after much discussion accepted the proposal of the king of England that she be betrothed to his oldest son. Thus did King Edward hope to win Scotland for his family.

A ship was carefully fitted out to bring "The Maid" from Norway to England. It is interesting to know what Edward ordered to be placed on board for the special use of the little queen—sugar, walnuts, figs, raisins, and twenty-eight pounds of gingerbread. Children six hundred years ago were as fond of sweets as they are to-day. The Maid of Norway did not reach England, for she died on the way, and the hope of a peaceful union of the two nations was at an end.

Thirteen claimants to the throne of Scotland at once appeared, of whom three only could be said to have any possible right. These were John Baliol (Bā'-le-ol), Robert Bruce, and John Hastings. Baliol and Hastings were great-grandsons, and Bruce a grandson of David, a brother of a former king of Scotland. The grandmothers of Baliol and Hastings, and Bruce's mother were three sisters, Baliol's grandmother being the eldest of the three. These three rivals to the throne agreed to lay their claims before the king of England for his judgment. Edward referred the matter to his council, who took twelve months to consider the question. Meanwhile Edward himself ruled Scotland as its "overlord." At last the decision was given in favor of Baliol, as he belonged to the oldest line; but before declaring judgment, Edward compelled Baliol to swear allegiance to him.

A few years passed in quiet, and then war broke out between England and France. Edward commanded Baliol and the Scottish nobles to join the army which he was about to lead across the Channel. Baliol was much puzzled; he had sworn alle-

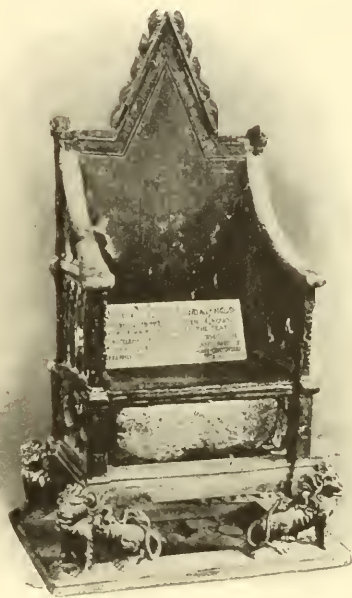
giance to Edward, but he had made a treaty of alliance with the king of France. Besides, the Scottish nobles refused to go, so he decided to break his oath of allegiance. Edward at once claimed that Baliol had forfeited his right to the throne, and sent an army against him. The Scots were unable to resist, and in a short time the most of Scotland yielded to the English.

Among the trophies seized was the Scottish "Stone of Destiny."

This was a small block of red sandstone, which, tradition said, was used by Jacob as a pillow during that night's sleep when he saw the golden ladder and the angels ascending and descending from heaven. After many wanderings it was finally brought to Scotland, and ever after, when a Scottish king was crowned, he stood upon this sacred stone. It was held in great reverence,

and wherever it went the Scottish monarchy was supposed to go also. Edward carried it to Westminster in triumph, and inclosed it in the seat of the coronation chair of the British kings.

Baliol was captured, carried to London and imprisoned, and Edward for a time was the actual ruler of Scotland. But the Scots were dissatisfied; they were restless under the presence



THE CORONATION CHAIR.

of English soldiers, and at last broke out in open revolt under the leadership of Sir William Wallace.

Tradition and fact are so closely interwoven in the story of the early life of Wallace that it is difficult to tell truth from fiction. This much we know: Wallace was a man of unusual size and uncommon strength; he had been guilty of some serious crime, and had fled to the mountains; he had been outlawed, and a price was put upon his head. He had the wisdom to see an opportunity for a successful insurrection in the continued dissatisfaction of the Scots. Though the Scottish nobles were jealous and held aloof, Wallace for a time was successful. But when Edward himself took the field, his skill was more than a match for that of Wallace. The Scottish army was cut to pieces, and Wallace, though at first he escaped, was captured, tried for treason, and beheaded. His watchword was "freedom and liberty," and he has ever been the Scottish national hero.

When Baliol attempted to make himself independent, Robert Bruce took sides with the king of England. After his death his son, the Earl of Carrick, remained at Edward's court, hoping that some time the king might change his mind and give the kingdom of Scotland to him. But Edward had no intention of doing this. He said to Bruce, "Do you think I have nothing better to do than to win kingdoms to give them to you?" The Earl of Carrick also died, leaving to his son, Robert, whatever claim the Bruces had to the throne of Scotland. This son was "The Bruce," who became King Robert I. of Scotland.

Like his father, Robert hung about the court for a time; but suddenly he waked from his inactivity and secretly left England. Scotland immediately rose in revolt, and Bruce was crowned its king.

"Henceforth," said Bruce to his wife, "thou art queen of Scotland and I its king."



"I fear," replied Mary Bruce, "we are only playing at royalty, like children in their games."

The play did not long continue. Edward sent a force of soldiers into Scotland, and Bruce had to flee for his life. Sometimes hiding from the English, sometimes contending against the treachery of hostile Scottish chiefs, Bruce wandered among the mountains for many months. But these very hardships were necessary to develop his character. His courage and hopefulness never wavered, and his bravery gathered about him a little band of followers whose loyalty never failed.

At one time in the course of his wanderings he came upon a little hut, hidden away in one of the mountain valleys. Being tired and hungry, Bruce asked for food and shelter.

"All travelers are welcome for the sake of one," replied the woman.

"And who is that one for whose sake you make all travelers welcome?" asked Bruce.

"I'll tell thee that. It is none other than King Robert the Bruce. His foes are pursuing him hard, but the day is at hand when he shall come to his own."

"Since you love him so well," said Bruce, "know that you see him before you. I am Robert the Bruce."

Most gladly she bade him enter, and not only gave him her



WILLIAM WALLACE.

best, but sent away with him her three strong sons "to be his servants for life and death."

Bruce's trusty friend, Douglas, "the good Lord James," as the Scots fondly call him, had made a capture of food and ammunition that was most welcome to the patriots. Bruce was not with them, but as the band lay hidden in a thick wood they heard the clear notes of a horn in the distance.

"That is the king," cried Douglas; "I know his blast of old."

Again came the ringing call through the clear air.

"No fear but that is the king," cried another.

With men so devoted that they recognized even the notes of his horn, Bruce must in the end win. Perseverance will in time accomplish much, and ill-fortune cannot last forever.

Bruce was now almost in sight of his old home. From a high hill near his hiding-place he could see the smoke from its chimney. For months he had heard no word from his wife or children, and he sent a trusty follower to gather news. If all were well, he was to light a fire on Turnberry Head. The spy found that Bruce's family had been captured, and his house was in the possession of English soldiers. It chanced to be the season when the farmers of that region cleared up and burned over their pastures, and Bruce, seeing one of these bonfires near the Head, supposed it to be the given signal. Eagerly he launched his boats, and after rowing all night landed at Turnberry Head. He found the spy waiting on the beach with the evil news.

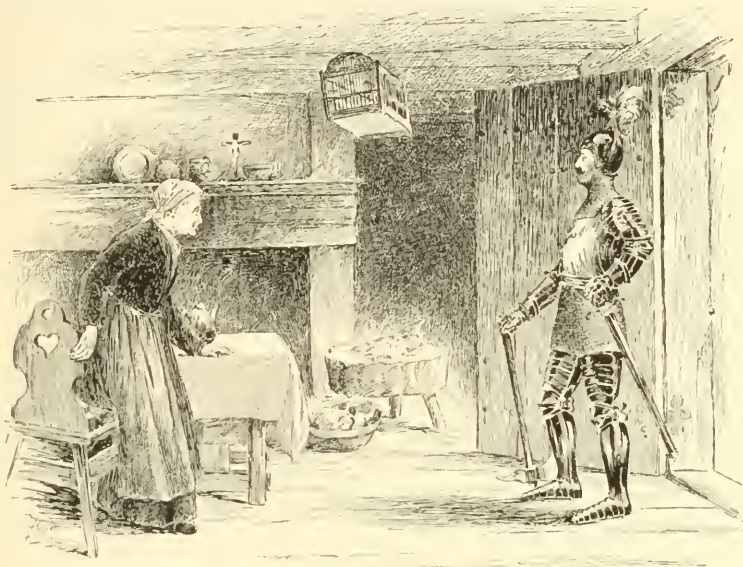
"Traitor," cried Bruce, "why did you make the signal?"

"Alas!" replied the spy, "the fire was not made by me, but for some purpose I know not what. But as soon as I saw it I knew you would come, thinking it my signal, and therefore I came down to wait for you to tell you how the matter stood."

A council of war was hurriedly held. Bruce decided to make an attack, and the English were completely surprised. This

was Bruce's first success; the Scots gathered about their leader, until at last he was ready to meet the English in battle.

Meanwhile Edward I. had died and had been succeeded by his son. Edward II. was very different from his father. He was no statesman; he was no soldier; he was not great or noble in any way. Still he was as determined as his father not



BRUCE AND THE LOYAL SCOTCH DAME.

to lose Scotland. Bruce had little fear of him. He is reported to have said that the father, dead, was worth more than the son alive. His little army of thirty thousand men was hardly a match for Edward's force of a hundred thousand, but skill and determination are of more value than numbers.

Just before the clash the Scots knelt in prayer. "They kneel! they kneel!" cried Edward. "They are asking for mercy."

“ They are, my liege,” replied one of his councilors, “ but it is of God and not of us they ask mercy. These men will win the day or die upon the field.”

In the battle of Bannockburn which followed the English army was completely routed, and Edward and a small company of knights escaped with difficulty. It was one of the worst defeats that an English army has ever suffered. By means of it Bruce won the independence of Scotland.

Describe Edward's character and ambitions.

Tell the story of Llewelyn's revolt.

Relate the story of the Maid of Norway.

Describe the rivalry for the throne of Scotland.

Describe Edward's conquest of Scotland.

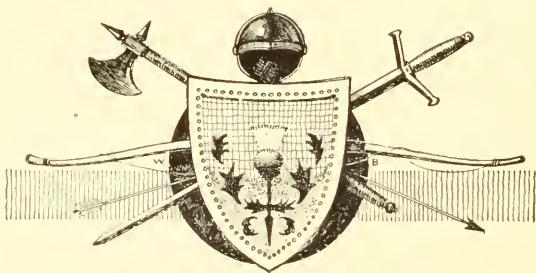
Give an account of the Stone of Destiny.

Tell the story of the revolt of Wallace.

Give an account of Robert Bruce at the court of Edward ; of his coronation ; in his wanderings.

Describe the battle of Bannockburn.

Why would it be better to have the whole island of Great Britain united ? Were there ever any coins but round coins ? How would the marriage of the Prince of Wales and the Maid of Norway win Scotland for the English royal family ? According to the law of primogeniture, which claimant was entitled to the throne of Scotland ? How was Baliol unwise in making a treaty of alliance with France, the enemy of England ? What is the difference between tradition and history ?





## CHAPTER XI.

# The Black Prince.

1330-1376.

EDWARD II. was king for about twenty years, and grew more unpopular every day. At last Parliament did that which no preceding national council had ever thought of attempting. The old Saxon Witan had the right to choose a king, but now Parliament claimed the right to set aside a king. Parliament deposed King Edward II., and chose his fifteen-year-old son to rule as Edward III.

Edward III. would have made a good king had he not been so ambitious. Even before he became of age he set out to add France to his kingdom. Not long after Edward's coronation King Charles IV. of France died, leaving no sons. His two older brothers had preceded him upon the throne. When he died he had no living brother and but one sister, Isabella, the mother of Edward III. According to French law a woman cannot be the ruler of France, and therefore Isabella's cousin, Philip VI., at once took the throne. Edward III. claimed the



crown through his mother, who, he said, could transmit it to her son, although she could not hold it herself. This was a ridiculous claim, but it was all that Edward needed; he declared war with Philip VI., which lasted, with intermissions, for so long a time that it is known in history as the Hundred Years' War.

Edward III. had been king only a few years when not only he himself, but the whole nation was made happy by the news that a son and heir, a new Prince of Wales, was born. Bells were rung all over the kingdom, and a day of feasting and rejoicing followed. The babe was christened Edward, the name that his great-grandfather had made illustrious. No father was ever prouder of his first-born son. From the day of the prince's birth the king's ambitions were all centered in the welfare of the child.

Even the war with France was carried on in a slow, half-hearted manner, until the boy reached the age of fifteen. As the young prince was then old enough to be a soldier, his father began preparations for a vigorous attack upon France. By making important grants to Parliament he obtained the necessary funds for paying a large army, and set out for France, leading his force in person. Philip VI. was able, however, to raise a very much larger army; and when the two forces approached each other, Edward at first found it necessary to retreat. When, in retreating, he came to a place where he thought he could defend himself, he halted and drew up his army in line of battle. This halt was a great surprise to the French army; but as it numbered many times the English force, it proceeded without hesitation to make an attack. The battle of Crécy (Kres'see) that followed was one of the most important battles in the history of the world. It was one of the last fought by the chivalry of the Middle Ages, and one of the first in which modern methods of warfare were used.



The Middle Ages were the days of chivalry, the days in which knights fought on horseback in hand-to-hand encounters. Those were the days in which lords, barons, and nobles, surrounded by the serfs or peasants who cultivated their fields, followed king or duke to battle. These serfs were poorly armed, and fought only because compelled to do so. They were of very little value, and often worse than useless. The brunt of the battle always fell upon the knights, and the army which had the greater number of knights was usually victorious.

In the battle of Crécy all this was changed. The flower of the English nobility, the knights and barons, were there; but in place of the serfs from the fields, Edward had an army of hired yeomen, the free, common people of England. The British yeoman was a skilled marksman, trained from boyhood in the use of the bow and arrow. Such was the army that awaited the approach of the French; for the first time an army of footmen, an army of the common people, was drawn up to resist an army of knights. What would be the result?

King Edward stationed himself upon a hill where he could overlook the battle. The right wing was led by the sixteen-year-old Edward. On came the French knights, with their armor glistening in the sunlight. Before they reached the line of Prince Edward's bowmen they were met by a flight of arrows



ENGLISH POSSESSIONS IN FRANCE UNDER EDWARD III.

so thick that it seemed to them to be snowing. The front line fell, horses and riders mortally wounded; those in the rear, unable to stop, rode over their prostrate companions, only to fall in their turn. Every arrow met its mark.

Here and there, scattered among the bowmen, were placed some little cannon which were used for the first time in warfare. Many people laughed at them as being nothing but playthings, but King Edward hoped that their noise might frighten the horses of the enemy and make them unmanageable. These cannon may have helped somewhat in winning the battle for the English, but they were mere toys in comparison with the great guns of the present time.



AN ENGLISH ARCHER.

The king of France had heard of Edward's army of archers, and had therefore added to his army a number of Genoese crossbowmen, who with their powerful bows might be supposed to work great destruction to an enemy. But a heavy thunderstorm wet the crossbows

and rendered them almost useless, while the bows of the English army were perfectly dry, as they were kept in cases. The sunlight that followed the shower was also an aid to the English, for it blinded the eyes of the French, and made them a more shining target for the English arrows.

In the midst of the battle a messenger from the young prince came to the king asking him to send aid.

"Is my son dead?" asked the king.

"No, sire," replied the messenger.

"Is the young man wounded?" the king asked again.

"No, sire," was the reply.

"Is he unhorsed?"

"No, sire, but he is hard pressed."

"Well, then, I will send him no aid. Let the young man win his spurs. It is my desire that the battle shall be won by the prince, and shall make his name famous throughout Europe."

The king was stationed where he could observe all that was going on, and he knew that the young prince was in no special danger.

In spite of the great numbers, in spite of the magnificent army of knights, the French forces were totally defeated. After the battle the Frenchmen lying dead on the field alone numbered more than the entire English army when it went into the fight. As this was the only army France had, and as it had been made as strong as possible, the whole kingdom was at the mercy of the victor of Crécy, the Black Prince, as young Edward was called by the French, from the fact that he always wore black armor.

When the victor came back into the camp, the king embraced and kissed him. "Sweet son," he said, "God grant you good perseverance. You are my true son. Right royally have you acquitted yourself this day, and shown yourself worthy to be a sovereign."

The prince humbly replied that to the king belonged the honor, as it was his teaching and his generalship that won the battle.



A GENOESE CROSSBOWMAN.

The battle of Crécy took place in the year 1346. This is the sixth great date in English history—the first battle won by British yeomen.

Not far from the battle ground of Crécy was the fortified city of Calais (Ka-lā'). This city is situated on the coast directly across the Channel from England. The possession of Calais would be of great value to the king of England, and Edward immediately began to besiege it. The garrison held out bravely for more than a year, but finally starvation proved a stronger foe than the English army. The garrison offered to yield, and a conference was held to prepare terms of surrender. King Edward was intensely angry at what he called the stubbornness of the city, and at first demanded the right to massacre the entire garrison. At length he was persuaded to pardon the city, on the condition that he should put to death six of the most prominent citizens.

When the report of this demand reached Calais, the dismay was general. Bells were tolled, and the townspeople gathered in silence in the public square. One of the chief men made an address, in which he showed the people that it was better for six persons to die than that all should perish, and offered himself as one of the sacrifices. Five other brave men followed his lead, and the six, barefooted and with ropes around their necks, were led before King Edward.

Said their spokesman:

“Gentle sir, and gentle king, behold us six, who have been ancient burghers of Calais, and great merchants. We bring you the keys of the town and castle, and put ourselves at your mercy, to save the rest of the people of Calais who have suffered so heavily. If you will, have pity upon us, of your great nobleness.”

The misery of the town and the bravery and noble bearing of the captives awoke such feelings of interest in the hearts of

the English nobles that they unanimously besought the king to grant a pardon to the six. But Edward's heart had hardened; his anger was too great. He ordered the executioner to do his work. At this moment Edward's wife, Queen Philippa, the mother of the king's darling, the Black Prince, fell upon her knees before Edward and begged for the lives of the captives.



*From an old print.*

PHILIPPA PLEADING FOR THE BURGHERS OF CALAIS.

The king, who could refuse nothing to his beloved wife, granted her request, saying ungraciously :

“I would that you had been elsewhere. You beg so that I cannot refuse. There, I give them to you. Do your pleasure with them.”

The queen led them away, clothed and fed them, and sent them home with a present of money.

A truce was made between the opposing forces which lasted

for several years. The Black Prince was appointed governor of Aquitaine and Gascony in southern France. From early boyhood he had been taught that it was his business in life to rule, and that to be a great warrior was the highest ambition a ruler could have. Therefore he governed the people of Gascony with a rod of iron. He compelled the people to support his large army, and did nothing for them in return. He was an Englishman, and did not understand the people of southern France.

War broke out again. The Black Prince led his army across the border into the territory which belonged to the king of France. This part of the country had been free from war for many years. The fields were teeming with crops and the castles were filled with gold and silver treasure. Prince Edward laid no restraining hands upon his soldiers, who plundered field and hall at their own pleasure. He had almost reached the city of Paris when he learned that King John, who had succeeded his father Philip, was marching against him from the north of France with a very large army. The Black Prince immediately retreated until he had nearly reached his own domain. Here he suddenly halted and began preparations for the attack.

Just as his father had carefully chosen the place for the battle of Crécy, so Prince Edward picked out the battle ground of Poitiers (Pwa-tī-ā'). He posted his knights at the end of a long lane bordered on both sides by vineyards. He placed his bowmen in these vineyards and also behind long rows of hedges. The French cavalry could approach only through this lane, where they were exposed to a terrible fire from both sides as well as from the front. Thus the eight thousand men under the Black Prince were able to defeat the French army, which was said to be nearly eight times as large. The French loss in this battle is something almost impossible to believe. Eight thousand men lay dead upon the field, five thousand more were killed in the flight, and three thousand were taken prisoners.



King John himself was captured and taken in triumph to London.

King Edward was determined to attack the city of Paris itself and complete the conquest of France. He led his army to the neighborhood of the city and began preparation for a siege; but the warlike king was as superstitious as his less educated subjects. A thunderstorm which destroyed many of his soldiers and horses so terrified him that he begged to make peace. Firmly impressed with the notion that God was angry with him, he signed the treaty of Brétigny (Bra-teen-yee'), in which he gave up nearly all that he had won, retaining only the province of Gascony, and the city of Calais with its surrounding territory. He set King John free on the payment of an immense ransom.

Thus ended the first portion of the Hundred Years' War. What had Edward accomplished? He had spent enormous sums of money, and held only Calais in return. He had lost thousands of English lives, a sacrifice that could hardly be paid for by the military glory which he had received. He had almost destroyed the kingdom of France, and had made the name of the Black Prince as dreaded throughout France as was that of Malek Rik among the Saracens. But Prince Edward died at the height of his manhood, and his name does not even appear in the list of the kings of England.

What had the people of England gained by this war? They had spent their money freely, and whenever they had given money to the king, they had obtained from him rights and powers which have been valuable ever since. For the first time they had shown themselves to the world as a nation of warriors; they had proved that they were able to defend themselves. But they had become filled with a love of war for its own sake, which hindered their development when peace came. In fact, though the people had gained something by their years of fighting, they probably lost more than they gained.

King Edward died soon after his son and left the throne to Richard, the oldest son of the Black Prince. Richard II. rivaled his ancestor, King John, in being the worst king that England ever had. Like his great-grandfather, Edward II., he was deposed and was soon after murdered. The story of how Henry IV., Henry V., and Henry VI. continued the Hundred Years' War must be left for another chapter.

State what claims Edward had to the throne of France.

Describe Edward's preparations for the war with France.

Give an account of the battle of Crécy.

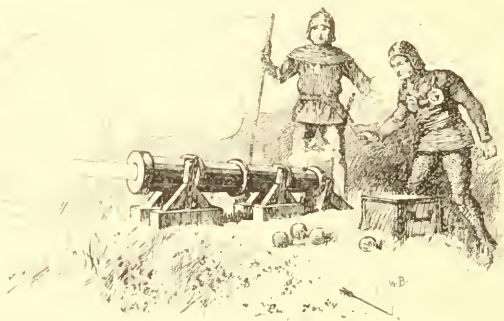
Tell the story of the siege of Calais; of the heroism of the six citizens.

Describe Prince Edward's ability as a ruler; as a commander.

Give an account of the battle of Poitiers; of the treaty of Bretigny.

Give the results of the wars in France.

Is ambition a good or a bad quality for a man to have? Do modern guns and modern methods of warfare increase or diminish the number of wars? Why did the yeomen make better soldiers than the serfs? How did the crossbows differ from the bows of the English? Why was the Black Prince right in giving the credit of the victory to his father? What are the first five great dates in English history? Why were the six citizens of Calais greater heroes than the Black Prince? Does war necessarily make a man hard-hearted? What mistake did King Edward make in the education of his son? What makes a man superstitious?



CANNON IN THE BATTLE OF CRÉCY.



## CHAPTER XII.

# Wat Tyler.

(?)—1381.

IN our study of the history of England we have reached the latter portion of the fourteenth century. That was over five hundred years ago. Let us stop in our story of kings and princes, of parliaments and battles, and see what England had become at this time. We have seen how the English people retained their love of liberty in spite of all oppression, and how at last, after all the ups and downs of nobles and kings, they had begun again, through their representatives in Parliament, to have a voice in the government of the country. We have learned that the common man was the man to be depended upon; that if English victories were to be won, the yeomen were to win them. The English yeomen were far in advance of the common people of any other European country. Was it not due partly, at least, to that individual character, that importance of the individual man, which we saw in the Anglo-Saxon when we first met him? In telling the stories of Alfred and William, of Becket and De Montfort, it has not been easy to describe the life of the people, or to

see how in his everyday life the individual man was beginning to assert himself.

When the Angles and Saxons first came to Britain, it was for the sake of plunder. They remained upon the island because of its fertile soil. The Danes also left their homes in Denmark because they found it easier to raise food in England. From the very beginning, then, England was an agricultural country. Except for some lead and tin, England sent to other countries nothing but wheat. The English people bought from foreign countries as little as possible, because they preferred to keep their gold and silver, which they considered alone made wealth. They would sell what they could, but were unwilling to buy more than was necessary.

About the time when Robert Bruce was winning the independence of Scotland, the English farmers began to turn their attention to raising sheep, from which they obtained what was considered the best fleece in the world. But, as a writer of that day said: "The English as yet know no more what to do with their wool than the sheep that bore it." They sent it across to Flanders, now called Belgium, where it was made into woolen cloth. This cloth was sent back across the Channel and purchased in England.

The prejudice against buying from abroad prevented any great importation of woolen cloths until after the English successes in the Hundred Years' War. Except the rich, the people of England contented themselves with clothing of home manufacture. But the wealthier classes were wearing more and more costly clothing. Their garments were made of silk and satin, and cloth of gold, and new fashions in dress came into use. The long hose of the previous century, reaching from the feet to the hips, were replaced by knee stockings and "small clothes," somewhat like the knickerbockers of to-day. The gallants at court wore shoes often three feet long, with toes turned

up and curled like horns, and fastened to the knees with silver chains.

After the English victories at Crécy and Calais, luxuries became more common in England. The rich were very extravagant in their dress, and even the poor began to wear imported clothing. In spite of acts of Parliament in opposition to this importation, it continued to increase, until factories for the making of woolen cloth were erected in England. Queen Philippa, whose home had been in the midst of the woolen factories of Flanders, brought over from that country skilled workmen, and the manufacture of woolen cloth became an established industry in England. Wool thus came to be one of the greatest sources of wealth. Even the House of Lords, the highest court in England, has shown its appreciation of the importance of wool to the nation by calling the chair occupied by the Lord Chancellor the Woolsack, because the crimson cushion which makes its seat is filled with wool. No longer an agricultural people only, the English were beginning to be a manufacturing nation.

To establish a business it is necessary to bring together buyer and seller. In a country where there are no railroads or telegraphs or even stage lines, and where the roads are poor, people dislike to travel. Yet if a man has anything to sell, he must find the man who wishes to buy. On this account, fairs were held,



A FOURTEENTH CENTURY GALLANT.

now and then, here and there, throughout the country. At these fairs were gathered all persons in the neighborhood who had anything to sell or anything to buy, or who wished to engage in trade or barter. Traveling salesmen from the city, with their packs well filled, also attended them.

Bunyan, in his "Pilgrim's Progress," gives this interesting description of one of these fairs: "The name of that town is Vanity, and at the town there is a fair kept, called Vanity Fair. This fair is no new, erected business, but a thing of ancient standing. I will show you the original of it. Years ago the path that the pilgrims made to the city lay through the town of Vanity. [It was] contrived here to set up a fair wherein should be sold all sorts of vanity, and that it should last all the year long; therefore, at this fair are all such merchandise sold, as houses, lands, trades, places, honors, preferments, titles, countries, kingdoms, wives, husbands, children, masters, servants, silver, gold, precious pearls, precious stones, and what not; and moreover at this fair there is at all times to be seen juggling, cheats, games, plays, fools, apes, knaves, and rogues, and that, of every kind."

The fairs were crowded with merry throngs of country folk, dressed in their best, bent on getting the most enjoyment as well as the best bargains. The farmer was present, with his fat cattle; his good wife with eggs and poultry; the servant looking for a master; the village beauty buying a ribbon to add to her costume at the next holiday revel. These fairs were all held by royal license or permission, and after a time to some of the towns was given the sole right to trade in certain articles like lead, tin, and wood. These goods could not be purchased or sold anywhere else. The larger towns strove to obtain these fairs, and often purchased the right from the king.

Buying and selling were also regulated by merchants who formed guilds. The mechanics and craftsmen united in craft guilds; as, for instance, the guild of the jewelers and the guild of



the shoemakers. Every person who wished to make shoes was required to belong to the guild. The officers of the guild put their mark upon each shoe manufactured, thereby attesting its good quality. Each guild thus regulated everything in its particular trade, determined the price of goods and also that of labor, and admitted or refused to admit new workmen. Thus the blessing of being able to work as one pleased, and where one pleased, and for what wages one pleased, was a thing unknown in the days of Edward III.

As the wealthier people grew more and more extravagant in the clothing they wore, they began to find it necessary to make improvements in their homes. Previous to this period the furniture in English houses was scanty, and of crude manufacture. Only during the latter part of the reign of Edward III. did chairs come into use instead of stools and benches. Carpets also began to take the place of rushes on the floors. As these rushes were seldom changed, they often became very filthy and caused much sickness. Among the common people, however, such luxuries as chairs and carpets were still unknown. Their houses contained no unnecessary furniture; indeed, there was no place for any, as a house had almost invariably but one room. Of course they were much better than the huts of the time of Caradoc, yet they were very cheap when contrasted with the poorest homes of the farmers of to-day. In the building of houses, as elsewhere, the change that was going on in the fourteenth century showed itself. Stone took the place of mud, and second stories began to appear, jutting out over the first. The upper chambers were commonly used as sleeping rooms, and were reached by staircases built on the outside.

These houses, with overhanging second stories, made the streets of the larger towns and cities even more narrow than they were before. A street fifteen feet wide was considered very broad in those days. It had no sidewalks, and was made higher in the

middle, so that when it rained the water ran down to the edge, and then, if the ground sloped enough, flowed along close to the houses. There were no street lights, and there was little travel by night. The streets were unpaved, and were frequently extremely muddy. Pools of stagnant water and heaps of refuse were common, for not even the largest cities had any system of sewerage, or any officials whose business it was to keep the streets clean. It is not strange that sickness was very common, and that, when disease became epidemic, the loss of life was almost beyond imagination.

Soon after the battle of Crécy a terrible plague spread over England. "The Black Death," as it was called, had previously ravaged the whole of Europe, but nowhere were its effects so disastrous as in England. Not only in the cities, with their dirt and filth, but even in the country villages, death knocked at every door, and often the number of the dead was so great that there were not enough living to bury them. More than half of all the inhabitants of England perished at the first visit of the plague. Several times during the next half century the plague returned, with great but less deadly severity.

We might suppose that such an epidemic would teach the people the necessity of cleanliness, but it seems to have done very little good in that respect. On the other hand, the Black Death had a result which we might not expect,—it caused the first strike in English history. After the terror had subsided, so that the farmers attempted to cultivate the fields again, they found that so many had died from the plague that there were not enough laborers left to do the necessary work. The few who were able to work demanded higher wages, and for more than thirty years a contest ensued between employers and employed, or between capital and labor.

As England was an agricultural community, most of its inhabitants were employed in the fields. The land was owned by

a comparatively small number of persons, and was rented by them to tenants. These tenants were, in a sense, slaves or serfs, for they could not leave the land which they tilled. They were forced to do certain work for the landowner, such as tilling his personal land and raising his crops. In early times they were even compelled, at his command, to follow him to the wars. After the Black Death the tenants began to demand the right to buy land; thus they would become free landowners instead of tenants.

The general discontent among the common people was shown by the strikes of the free laborers and these demands of the tenants, who also ran away, and in other parishes, where they were unknown, pretended that they were free laborers. The discontent was increased by certain laws of Parliament directing landowners not to sell their land to tenants, and

forbidding the common people from traveling from one parish to another. The people were ready for a revolt when Parliament passed a law providing for a poll tax, or tax upon each poll or head, meaning a tax upon each person. The tax was levied not only upon the laborers themselves, but also upon their wives and all children over fifteen years of age. This tax was often fourpence a head, and as the average wages of the laborer was a penny a day, it frequently happened that he had to work several weeks in order to obtain money enough to pay his tax.



A MERCHANT'S HOUSE, FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

One day a man named Walter, whose business it was to cover roofs with tiles, was at work not far from his house when he heard the screams of his young daughter. He jumped to the ground and rushed home. At the door he met one of the collectors of taxes, who had been wickedly insulting the girl, and killed him on the spot. The neighbors flocked to the assistance of Walter the tiler, or Wat Tyler, as he has always been called since, who in his anger urged them to proceed to London and demand relief from their wrongs.

Headed by Tyler the little band started, but long before it reached London it became an army of a hundred thousand. It was joined by the people of every village through which it passed and the news of its march brought great numbers from every direction. Wat Tyler led the army, but he had able assistants in Jack Straw and John Ball. When the crowd had nearly reached London, John Ball preached a sermon, taking as his text :—

“When Adam delved and Eve span,  
Who was then the gentleman?”

He told his hearers that it was not right for some people to have all the good things of life without labor and for others to work hard for their living, and claimed that England would never be happy until the people had all things in common.

The army entered the city and for three weeks held possession of London. They captured the Lord Chancellor and the head collector of taxes, and put them both to death. They burned the palace of John of Gaunt, the uncle of the king, and ransacked many other mansions. They destroyed whatever silver and gold plate they could find, but took none of it for their own use. One man, who was caught stealing a piece of silver, was hanged by his companions.

The mob demanded of the king and Parliament that taxes

should be lightened, and that the laws concerning laborers should be made more just. King Richard, a youth of sixteen, fearlessly rode out to meet the peasants.

"I am your king and lord, good people," he cried. "What will you?"



KING RICHARD II. ADDRESSING THE MOB.

"We will," the mob shouted, "that you free us forever, us and our lands; and that we be never named nor held for serfs."

"I grant it," the king replied.

Richard's promise was hailed with shouts of delight; but the peasants were not ready to obey his command and go home.

One day as Tyler was talking with the king, one of the royal attendants stabbed and instantly killed him. The mob was now



without a leader, and was soon overpowered and dispersed. Many were put to death, and the rest were compelled to return to their homes. Not only did Parliament fail to make the burden lighter, but it passed laws which bore even more heavily upon the people. King Richard himself failed to keep any of his promises.

But the laws of Parliament were never enforced. The landholders were too much afraid of another revolt to press their tenants more than necessary. Even the laws forbidding the sale of land were ignored, and little by little the tenants threw off their serfdom and became landowners. Within a hundred years serfdom had almost entirely disappeared. Here again the old Anglo-Saxon idea of the value of the individual man was showing itself. It was centuries after this before serfdom ceased among the other nations of Europe.

Wat Tyler was but a common man, and was led on by a desire for vengeance. We know little more of him than has been told here, but we may consider him a fair sample of the common people of his day. Quiet and peaceful for the most part, Wat Tyler and his friends endured hardships without complaint. But when they felt that their rights were taken away and that they were being oppressed without reason, then they rose in their might and said "No." Such was the English spirit at the close of the fourteenth century, and such it has ever been.

Tell why the English common people were superior to the peasants of Europe.

Give an account of early English trade; the introduction of wool-raising; of manufactures; of the fairs; of the guilds.

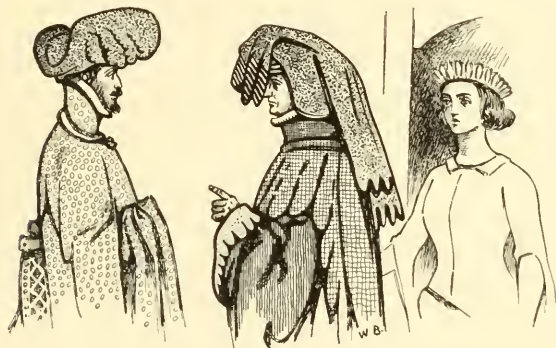
Describe the dress of this period; the houses; the furniture; the streets; the condition of the laborers.

Tell the story of the Black Death; the first strike; Tyler's rebellion.

How had the English people lost their liberties? Why is agriculture the first industry adopted by any people? Were the English right or wrong in their ideas of what made wealth? Next to food, what is most necessary



for the comfort of man? Why did the victories in France change the life of the English people? How were the guilds of advantage to both buyer and seller? What is the most common source of disease? Are strikes the best way to settle disputes? Do you suppose that Parliament did not realize that it was overtaxing the people? Was Tyler's rebellion justified? What is the origin of many English names?



COSTUMES, 1350-1400.



## CHAPTER XIII.

# Prince Hal.

1388-1422.

EDWARD III. had five sons, four of whom grew to manhood. They were Edward the Black Prince; Lionel, Duke of Clarence; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster; and Edmund, Duke of York. John of Gaunt had more ability and power than his brothers, and after the death of the Black Prince he became his father's principal adviser. When Richard II., son of the Black Prince, came to the throne, his uncle, John of Gaunt, took control of affairs until the boy became of age. After the death of John, his son Henry, Duke of Lancaster, acquired the same power, and when King Richard was deposed, his influence was strong enough to compel Parliament to choose him as Richard's successor. As Lionel was older than John of Gaunt, his descendants had stronger claims to the throne than Henry of Lancaster. This failure to follow the direct order of succession was the cause of a long war in England many years later, which will be the subject of the next chapter.

Soon after the coronation of Henry IV., Richard II. died, leaving no children, and Henry's title to the throne was deemed secure. During his reign the troubles with the common people continued, the discontent growing as the complaints were unheeded. There was no outbreak, however, and there were no foreign wars. Henry's reign was quiet and peaceful, and, in general, a period of progress in English history.

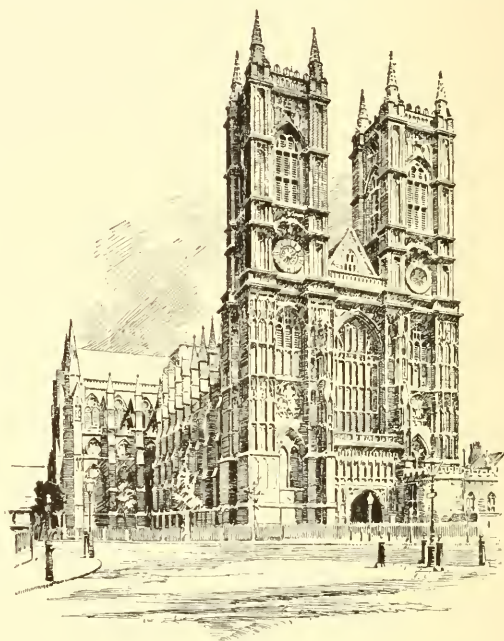
The Prince of Wales, heir to the throne, was a youth who gave his father many an unhappy hour. Prince Hal, as he was called not only when prince but when king, was a wild, fun-loving boy, at some form of mischief at all hours of the day. Henry IV. was a strict, stern parent, who was unable to make any allowance for the boyishness of his son. Whenever he heard of any of Prince Hal's mischief, he became angry with the boy. This lack of sympathy on the part of the king made him exaggerate Prince Hal's fun into wickedness, and there were those about the king who were glad of an opportunity to increase the father's anxiety. Yet the young prince was popular. At court he was almost worshiped by the young men of his own age. It has been said of him that :

“He was indeed the glass  
Wherein the noble youth did dress themselves.”

But it was not at the court alone that young Hal was popular. “Whenever the prince appeared in public, which was often,” says a recent writer, “he was greeted with popular enthusiasm, so hearty that its sincerity could not be questioned. He was surrounded at every step; the good wives and daughters of the town leaned far out of the gabled windows to flourish a handkerchief, throw a kiss, or spread bouquets beneath his feet. His smile was so bright and genial, his voice so winning, and his gratitude so happy, that the great heart of the metropolis beat

with glowing affection, and he was fairly idolized by every man, woman, and child among them."

Underneath all the prince's love of fun and mischief there was an earnestness and sincerity which is none too common among kings. This is well shown in the story that has been commonly told of the time when the prince appeared before the chief justice of the realm. He went into the court-room and demanded that a friend who was on trial should be set free. The upright and fearless judge replied that the law must be followed, but that the king could give his pardon afterwards. Prince Hal attempted to rescue the prisoner, but the judge sternly ordered him to keep the peace. The prince in a rage strode across the court-room and drew his sword. The judge unmoved, and with even more sternness, said to the prince:



WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

Where England's Great Men are Buried.

"Sir, remember yourself. I am here in place of your sovereign lord and father, to whom you owe double obedience; wherefore, eftsoons, in his name I command you to desist of your wilfulness,

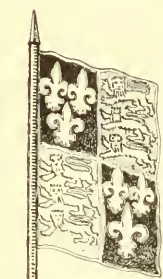
and from henceforward give good example to those who hereafter shall be your proper subjects. And now for your contempt and disobedience I commit you to the prison of the king's bench, where you shall remain until the pleasure of your father be further known."

The prince saw the justice of the judge's reproof. He put back his sword, bowed penitently, and proceeded to prison. This submission of the heir to the throne to the laws of the kingdom not only pleased his father, but also greatly increased his popularity among the people of England.

When Henry IV. died, Prince Hal became king. The responsibilities of royalty sobered him at once, and Henry V. has always been reckoned one of England's ablest kings. Though the discontent of the common people continued, little by little the landlords privately acknowledged the justice of their demands and granted them more freedom. However, England was on the verge of a revolt or revolution during the early part of Henry's reign. He realized that war at home could be prevented by a popular war abroad, little considering that a foreign war could do England harm.

Prince Hal, like most of his Plantagenet ancestors, was an ambitious man. He was not content to be king merely of England, Wales, and Ireland. When he looked at the English standard and saw the French fleur-de-lis as prominent as the English lion, and when he heard himself called king of France, as he did when he took the coronation oath, he was not satisfied with the title only. His great-grandfather, Edward III., when he unjustly claimed the throne of France, took this title to himself, and united the French standard with the English. Although by the treaty he gave up his claim to that throne, he retained the title. It was held also by his successors, Richard II. and Henry IV. Henry V. determined that he would be king of France in fact as well as in name. Therefore he renewed the Hundred Years' War.

Henry's ambition was the principal cause of the war, but the discontent at home gave him, he thought, strong additional reason; besides, the peculiar conditions in France seemed to make this a suitable time. The king, Charles VI., was insane, and his eldest son, called the Dauphin, ruled in his place. A quarrel had broken out between the Dauphin and the king's brother, the Duke of Burgundy, the most powerful man in France. Henry asked the French king for his daughter Catherine in marriage. The dowry he demanded was intentionally so great that Charles declined. Henry at once claimed that he had been insulted. He declared war and led an army into France.



THE ENGLISH STANDARD.

The battle of Agincourt (Ä-zhän-koor') was merely a repetition of Crécy and Poitiers. The English made use of the same tactics, and, though the French army was much the larger, it was completely destroyed. Henry then made a treaty with the Duke of Burgundy (Bur'-gün-dī), in which was arranged the future of France. Charles VI., by the terms of the treaty of Troyes (Trwa'), though insane and unable to act as king, was to retain the title as long as he lived. Henry of England was to marry the daughter of the king and act as regent, thereby having complete power in France. When King Charles died, the throne was to go to Henry; the rights of the Dauphin were completely ignored.

A year or two passed. Henry and Catherine were married; a son and heir was born; and the king's cup of happiness seemed



to be full. But at the very height of his glory Henry died, leaving everything to his eleven-months-old son, Henry VI.

The baby king was fortunate in the regents who governed the kingdom during his minority. The dukes of Bedford and Gloucester (Glos'-ter) were wise and capable statesmen, distinguished soldiers, and loyal to both king and country. The Duke of Bedford took charge of the army in France, while Gloucester managed affairs at home. The mad King Charles died the same year as Henry V., and the Dauphin, who had been regent at the beginning of the war, was dead also. The prince who bore the title of Dauphin was an unambitious youth, irresolute, and easily guided by those about him. Not only did he make no attempt to recover the throne, but he even talked of the possibility that he had no right to be king and suggested that it would be better for him to go to Scotland and live as a simple knight. Even his friends had so little confidence in him that they never called him king—only Dauphin, or heir to the throne. When Bedford laid siege to the important city of Orleans (Or'-le-anz) and was starving it into surrender, the Dauphin made no move for its rescue.

While the Dauphin was thus idle, an unknown and unexpected avenger of French wrongs appeared. Three years before the coronation of Henry V., there was born in a little village on the very border of France a girl named Jeanne d'Arc (Zhan Dark). Joan of Arc, as the English people translated the name, was the daughter of a very poor and humble couple exactly like their neighbors in the quiet, peaceful town. All the villagers were on the side of the Dauphin, and as talk of war was in the mouth of everyone, Joan from her infancy was filled with a desire to drive the English from the country. Ever did her heart long for some avenger to arise who should wake the Dauphin from his inactivity and rescue France.

One day, when she was not more than thirteen, she was spinning in the garden ; suddenly a bright light seemed to shine

around her from which she thought she heard a voice saying, "Joan, be good and constant at church, for the King of heaven has chosen thee to save France."

Though greatly terrified, the child faltered: "Sir, how can I save France? I am only a poor girl. I cannot ride or lead armed men."

Again and again such voices came to her, until finally, after three or four years, she claimed that St. Michael, the captain of the hosts of heaven, appeared and urged her not to tarry, for the time had come when she must save France. When she wept and pleaded that she knew nothing of war, St. Michael sternly said: "What God commands, do fearlessly. St. Catherine and St. Margaret will help thee."

Joan now firmly believed that she had been appointed by heaven to save her country. She dared tell no one of her vision, knowing that her family would forbid her to leave home. At last, following out the careful directions of the voices, she went to the governor of a town near by and told him her visions. He laughed at her, and advised her to go home to her father; but Joan was not to be turned aside by a laugh. Little by little she gained a following among the superstitious country people, who believed in her mission. They provided her with a horse and a plain suit of steel. Then, with a few followers, she set out on horseback for Chinon (Shē-non'), where the Dauphin held his court.

The pleasure-loving attendants of the Dauphin heard with scorn the story of "The Maid," as she was called. They had no desire to give up their life of ease for the hardships of camp, and still less to be led to battle by a woman. But the people, by this time, so firmly believed in Joan that the Dauphin did not dare to anger them by refusing to give her a hearing. He received her in the midst of his splendidly attired courtiers, he alone being in plain dress. A peasant maiden would scarcely be supposed to think that the soberly clad man could be the prince. Joan was



*From the painting by Scherrer.*

JOAN OF ARC'S VICTORIOUS ENTRY INTO ORLEANS.

not deceived; she knew the Dauphin instantly, fell upon her knees before him, and cried: "The King of heaven has sent me to lead you to Rheims (Rēmes) for your coronation. Why will you not believe me? God has pity on you and on your people."

Her earnestness so impressed him that she was allowed to lead an army to the relief of Orleans, which was now in a desperate condition. When she appeared before the army on her horse, holding in her hand a white banner embroidered with the lilies of France, and a picture of Christ and the Virgin Mary, the enthusiasm of the soldiers had no bounds.

The English leaders held her in contempt, but the ignorant English soldiers thought her a witch and would not fight against her. The commanders were obliged to give up the siege and withdraw their armies. Having relieved Orleans, Joan tried to persuade the Dauphin to go to Rheims to be crowned. He really only half believed in her, and he exaggerated the dangers in the way, but her eagerness finally overcame his reluctance. When Joan was asked what reward she desired, she would take nothing for herself. She only requested that her native town should henceforth be exempt from taxation.

With Orleans taken and the Dauphin crowned as King Charles VII., Joan thought her mission ended, and asked permission to return to her home. This the king would not permit. Misfortune now came to her. Charles VII. would not follow up her victories, the nobles did not believe in her, and the English leaders made every effort to capture her. At last they succeeded, through the treachery of one of the French nobles.

Great was the rejoicing among the English. Joan was brought before the courts, tried as a witch, and condemned to be burned unless she would acknowledge that the voices were false. As she refused, she was burned at the stake in Rouen, claiming to the last, "My voices have not deceived me." All through the trial the king of France made no effort to save her. "Say of me what you will," Joan cried, "but let the king be. He is a good Christian and did not trust in me. He is the noblest Christian of all Christians!" A strange trust in an unworthy man!

Before Joan of Arc died, her life might have been called a

failure. The French remained idle, and the English held most of France. The French had deserted Joan, and the English burned her as a witch. The news of her death aroused the French; they threw aside their sloth, and little by little drove the English from France until Henry VI. possessed only the town of Calais. At the time, English writers found nothing but evil to say of the Maid of Orleans; but, as prejudice passed away, the English people began to think of her as she was—a true, pure girl, obedient to what she thought her duty. In France she is considered a saint.

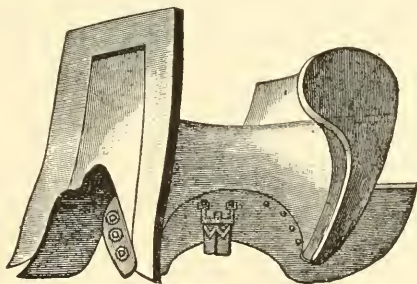
Tell how Henry IV. came to be king of England.

Tell the story of Prince Hal : his youth, his popularity, his experience at court, his ambitions, his successes.

Give an account of the conditions in France at the time of Prince Hal's succession to the throne of England.

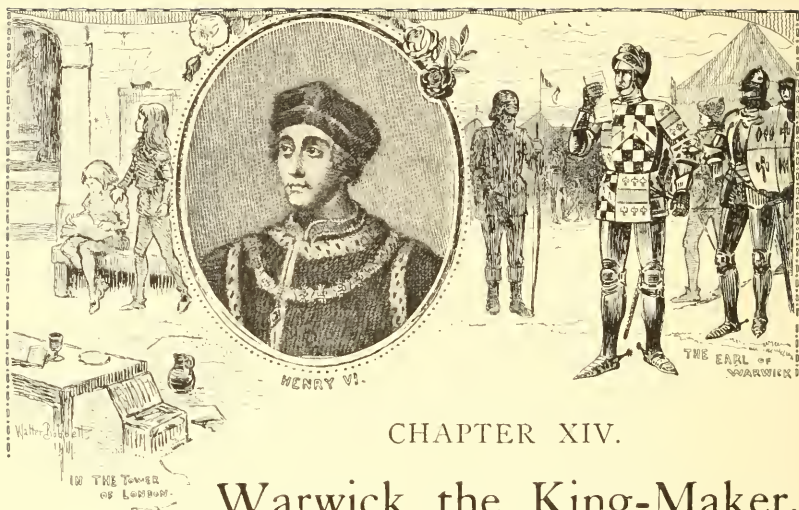
Tell the story of Joan of Arc : her girlhood, her visions, her experiences at the French court, her life as a soldier, her death.

Why did some of King Henry's courtiers try to influence him against Prince Hal? What made the prince popular with the people? Why does responsibility often change a man's character? Had Edward III. the right to unite the French standard with the English? How could a popular foreign war prevent civil war? What were the reasons for the inactivity of the French? Why was Joan successful? Why did not Charles rescue her?



THE SADDLE OF HENRY V.





## CHAPTER XIV.

# Warwick the King-Maker.

1420(?)–1471.

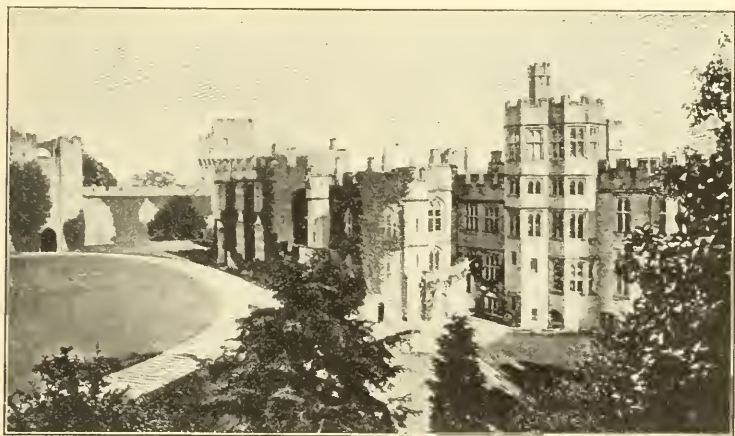
EDWARD II. was a weak king, and Richard II. was weaker, but Henry VI. was the weakest ruler that ever sat on the throne of England. While he was a child, the government was well administered by his uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester. When Bedford died and Gloucester became the real ruler of the kingdom, his lofty position brought with it the hatred of the other nobles. When the king became of age, and later was married to Margaret of Anjou, the opposition to Gloucester grew greater. Margaret hated this uncle of her husband, and, uniting with his enemies, succeeded in having him assassinated. From this time on the childish, pious, monk-king was at the mercy of the rival nobles of England.

Among these nobles we find Richard, Duke of York; Beaufort (Bū'-fort), Duke of Somerset; and Neville (Nev'-il), Earl of Warwick (Wōr'-ik). Let us see who these three men were. Richard, Duke of York, belonged to the royal family. He was



a descendant of Edmund, fifth son of Edward III., and his mother, Anne Mortimer, was the only living descendant of Lionel, the third son of Edward III. Richard, therefore, was the rightful heir to the throne, as Henry VI. was descended only from John, the fourth son of Edward III. But it will be remembered that Henry IV. had been chosen king by Parliament. Naturally he had been followed by his son and then by his grandson. In fact, little if any attention was paid to the claims of Richard of York.

Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, was a cousin of the king. He, as well as the king, was a descendant of John of Gaunt. Henry VI. had been married several years and had no children, and Somerset



WARWICK CASTLE.

was therefore heir to the throne. He was a favorite with Queen Margaret, but very unpopular with the people of England.

The third noble, the Earl of Warwick, commonly called the "Stout Earl," was the greatest hero of his times. From boyhood he was very popular. He was always frank and honorable, and his word was never broken; he was in every sense a thorough

Englishman. He was without question the wealthiest man in the country, and he used his riches in a way to make himself even more popular. His palace in London was open to every visitor, and no human being ever went away hungry from his door. Fighting men were permitted at any time to enter his kitchen and carry away as large a piece of meat as they could pick up on the points of their daggers. At one time, it is said, thirty thousand people were fed daily at the different mansions of the Earl of Warwick. He was a personal enemy of Somerset, and a loyal friend to Richard of York.

The Duke of York had been sent to Ireland as governor, in order to remove him from the court. His friends, however, remained near the king, and York's interests were well cared for. One day, so the story goes, Somerset and Warwick met in the Temple Gardens, each attended by a crowd of followers. A discussion arose as to which of the royal houses, Lancaster or York, had the right to the throne. An appeal was made to their followers, but they declined to enter into the quarrel. Warwick thereupon plucked a white rose from a neighboring bush, saying, as Shakespeare words it :

“ Let him that is a true-born gentleman,  
And stands upon the honor of his birth,  
If he suppose that I have pleaded truth,  
From off this brier pluck a white rose with me.”

Somerset immediately replied :

“ Let him that is no coward, nor no flatterer,  
But dare maintain the purity of the truth,  
Pluck a red rose from off this thorn with me.”

From this time on the white rose was the symbol of the Duke of York and his adherents, while the house of Lancaster and its followers wore the red rose. The wars that resulted kept Eng-

land in a turmoil for thirty years, and have always been called the "Wars of the Roses."

While the feud between the families of York and Somerset was at its height, a son and heir was born to the king. Somerset was no longer to be feared as the next king of England, but doubtless his influence would continue to be powerful. The friends of York, who had hoped that York's popularity and the hatred of Somerset would make the former rather than the latter king on the death of Henry VI., now realized that the contest must be between York and this heir of the Lancaster family. It was not Somerset only who now carried the red rose, but all the adherents of the reigning house.

Just before the birth of his son, King Henry fell ill with the disease which he had inherited from his grandfather, King Charles VI. of France. He became insane, and for more than a year remained speechless and almost motionless. For some time the queen was able to keep secret the condition of the king. Finally, Parliament, hearing that its king was a madman, proclaimed a protectorate, and appointed Richard of York regent. For a time York was supreme, and Somerset was entirely deprived of power. Matters moved along quietly until the king grew better, and recovered control of the government; then Somerset came into power, and York retired to his country residence. Again the king lost his reason, and again York was made protector. The ups and downs continued; now Somerset was in prison as a traitor, now York was in custody.

There seemed to be no way to settle the long-standing quarrel except by a resort to arms. York and Warwick raised a great army, while Somerset brought together the king's forces. York marched his army against Somerset, all the time claiming that he was loyal to the king, but that Somerset must be punished. The royal army gallantly held its own until suddenly the forces of the Earl of Warwick broke through in the rear, and, with

loud shouts of "A Warwick! A Warwick!" poured upon it a deadly hail of arrows. Somerset was slain.

At the conqueror's request, the king summoned a new Parliament, which appointed York protector and made Warwick governor of Calais. For two years the king remained in retirement, under the care of the queen. The new Duke of Somerset succeeded to his father's possessions and to his father's hatred of



THE TOWER OF LONDON.

the family of York. At length the king regained his reason, assumed authority, and reappointed the queen's favorites to positions of power. At Henry's request, a love feast was held. The procession was headed by the king, wearing his crown and bearing his scepter; then followed the queen, led by the Duke of York; behind them, hand in hand, came the former enemies Somerset and Salisbury (Sawlz'-ber-e), Warwick and Exeter. Mass was chanted, and a grand Te Deum was sung. Who was in earnest? Probably only the king.

Two years had not passed before a battle took place in which Warwick was successful. A later battle went the other way, and Warwick fled to Calais. Parliament was called and York, Warwick, Salisbury, and York's two eldest sons were declared traitors. In another battle the white rose was victorious. A new Parliament repealed the acts of the preceding one, and York entered London in triumph.

Up to this time, the leader of the white roses had claimed perfect loyalty. Henry VI. was king, and York was fighting the lords who were injuring the country. His ambition, however, had been steadily growing, and now he showed what his real desire had been. When the archbishop said to him, "Will not my Lord of York pay his duty to the king?" the duke replied, "I know no one in the realm who ought not first to visit me." York immediately presented a petition to Parliament, stating his claim to the throne, and tracing his line back to Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the elder brother of John of Gaunt, ancestor of Henry VI. The lords were none too well disposed toward the Duke of York, and refused to discuss the petition without the king's consent.

Henry said: "My father was king, and his father was king. I have worn the crown for forty years from my cradle. You have all sworn fealty to me as your sovereign. Your fathers have done the like to mine. How can my right be questioned?" He ordered them to search the records and establish his right. After much discussion a compromise was made. Henry was to remain king, but York was to succeed him. This ought to have satisfied everyone who had the real interests of the kingdom at heart, except, perhaps, Queen Margaret and her son Edward, Prince of Wales.

Peace did not follow. Margaret went to the north and raised an army. At first she was successful, but when she reached London she could not stay. "The foreign woman," as she was called, was as unpopular as the new Duke of York was popular.

When he entered London, the shouts of the populace rang from one end of the city to the other. Margaret had already fled, and in the battle that followed the York forces were completely victorious.

Warwick put Henry in the Tower of London and crowned the Duke of York as Edward IV. Henry had never enjoyed his kingship, and in his mind,

“ Kingdoms are but cares ;  
State is devoid of stay ;  
Riches are but snares,  
And hasten to decay.”

He liked the solitude of his life in the Tower, and would have been content to stay there if that could “stop the slaughter” of his people.

Margaret could not rest. Strangely she became reconciled to her greatest enemy, Warwick, who was angered at some act of Edward. Together they defeated the king, brought Henry from his prison, and placed him upon the throne again. It was only for six months, however. Edward returned, Warwick was killed, and Henry’s son was captured.

“What brought you to England?” asked Edward of York.

“To seek my father’s crown and my own inheritance,” replied Edward of Lancaster, undaunted by the danger he was in.

Continued war had brutalized King Edward; he struck the boy in the face with his gauntlet. This seemed to be a signal; for Edward, the last of the true Lancaster line, was seized and killed. Henry died soon after, though how he came to his death is not known. The heart and the courage of the queen were broken; she had no longer a son or a husband to fight for.

Edward IV. reigned twenty-two years over a distracted kingdom. At his death he left two sons, thirteen and nine years old, and the elder was proclaimed king as Edward V., with his uncle



Richard as regent until he reached his majority. Richard began at once to carry out a plan to put himself in power. He placed the young king and his brother in the Tower. He accused Hastings, his own intimate friend, of treason, because he knew that he was too honorable to uphold the steps which he intended to take. He sent his agents and spies throughout England, and arranged



*From the painting by Delaroche.*

#### THE YOUNG PRINCES IN THE TOWER.

that the citizens should gather together and command that the crown of England be placed on his head. The fickle people fell into the trap, and Richard was, as he said, "persuaded to become their king." His coronation followed, and the short reign of Edward V. was at an end.

Richard was not sure of his kingdom even then, and in order to establish himself firmly he was willing to do anything, no matter

how revolting. Two ruffians, it is said, entered the prison of his two young nephews at night and smothered them. Who could now oppose Richard? The last of the Lancaster family was dead. He himself was the sole male survivor of the House of York except two young children, sons of his older brother, the Duke of Clarence; but what cared he for babies?

A reign begun as was the reign of Richard III. could not be popular. Hatred of the usurper and murderer grew with great rapidity, and all that the people needed was a leader. This leader was found in Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond, whose grandmother was the widow of Henry V. and whose mother was a daughter of Somerset. Moreover, Henry Tudor was engaged to be married to Elizabeth of York, the sister of the murdered princes. Could Henry become king, he would represent the Lancaster family, and his queen the house of York. The opponents of Richard gathered about the new leader, and at the battle of Bosworth Field, Richard was killed while fighting bravely. Henry Tudor was crowned Henry VII. on the field of battle. A few months later he and Elizabeth were married, and the Wars of the Roses were ended.

What were these Wars of the Roses? Contests between the rival families of York and Lancaster. The story shows that it was merely a struggle between the great houses of England. Not alone were the royal houses of York and Lancaster engaged, but such great families as the Somersets, the Warwicks, the Salisburys, the Exeters, and the Northamptons. It was only a contest for family power. And what was the result? When Henry VII. took the throne there were no Yorks, no Lancasters, no Somersets, no Warwicks. The kingdom was bankrupt. All the families had lost fortunes and many of them were completely destroyed. Their great power was at an end. Henry VII. had nothing to fear from the nobles of the realm: his reign opened a new era in English history.

State the conditions in England during the childhood and early manhood of Henry VI.

Describe the character of the Earl of Warwick; the character of Henry VI.; the character of Richard.

Give an account of the quarrel between Warwick and Somerset.

Tell the story of the ups and downs in the struggle for power; the reconciliation; the success of the Duke of York.

Give the results of the Wars of the Roses.

What were the real causes of the Wars of the Roses? Who was mostly at fault for their continuance? At first the struggle was for power, then for the throne; what brought about this change? What similar compromise had previously been made between two rival claimants to the throne? How was the success of Henry VII. the best possible thing that could have happened?



TEMPLE GARDENS.



## CHAPTER XV.

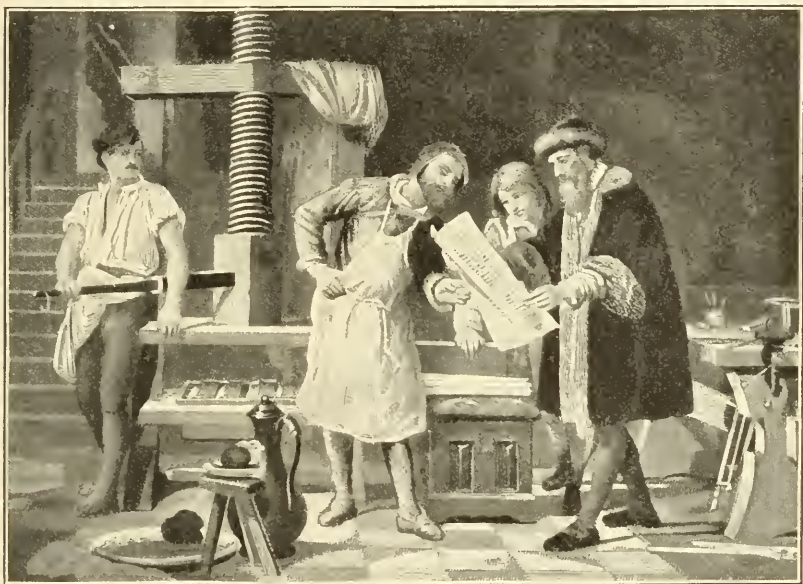
# John Cabot.

(?)-1498 (?).

WITH the end of the Wars of the Roses came the end of the Middle Ages. Modern history, in England at least, may be said to begin with the reign of Henry VII. Several things had happened during the fifteenth century which brought about great changes, and not the least of these was the invention of printing. About the middle of the century, a few years before the first battle in the Wars of the Roses, John Gutenberg began to print books in Mainz (Ments), a city of Germany. Previous to this time, all books were written by hand, like those that Alfred the Great used. Gutenberg shaped little pieces of metal into the forms of letters; arranging these letters into words and sentences, he covered them with ink, pressed a paper down upon them, and a page was printed.

This invention was carried into England by William Caxton, a London merchant who had learned the process of printing

while visiting in Flanders. He set up his printing press "at the sign of the Red Pale," and advertised his books as "good chepe." His first book, "The Sayings of the Philosophers," was published during the reign of Edward VI. This book, a copy of which is in the British Museum, has no title page, but at the end of the work appears this sentence, "The dictes or sayengis of the philo-



THE FIRST SHEET FROM THE PRINTING PRESS.

sophires, emprynted by me william Caxton at westmistre, the year of our lord MCCCCLXXVII." Caxton, though sixty years old when he began his work, translated, edited, or wrote, and printed sixty-four different books. Perhaps a monk might have written in the same period one copy each of sixty-four books, but Caxton printed them by the hundred. No longer were books such a luxury that they could be owned only by the very few.



While Gutenberg was experimenting with type in Germany, the Turks were besieging Constantinople. This city had been for more than a thousand years the capital of the eastern, or Greek empire—that part of the old Roman empire which had not been conquered by the barbarians. Though all knowledge of the ancient Greek civilization had been lost to the people of western Europe, it had been retained by the educated men of Constantinople. At length the Turks captured the city in the year 1453. This date is one of the most important in the world's history, though not immediately connected with the history of England.

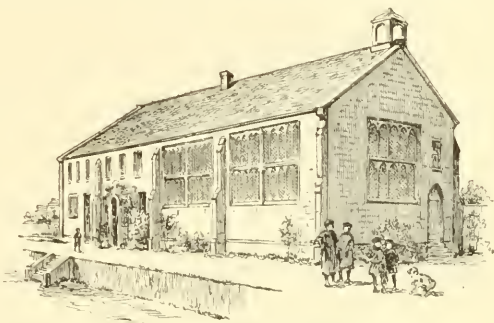
The learned Greeks, compelled to flee from the city, found their way into Italy, France, and Spain. They earned a living by teaching; for the people were ready to be taught, and were interested in the old, but to them new Greek language and literature. They admired the Greek architecture and sculpture as described to them by these fugitives. A new spirit began to show itself—a desire to learn, a wish to know, an eagerness to accomplish something worthy of being preserved for a thousand years. The “Revival of Learning” had begun. But many years went by before it reached England; so long as the nobles cared only to fight one another, there was no place for the new learning.

Now and then during the Middle Ages a man was found who preferred adventure to commonplace fighting and acts of chivalry. Such a man was Marco Polo, an Italian, who not only visited Rome and Constantinople and Jerusalem, but went on farther and farther eastward into the unknown regions of eastern Asia. He visited India and China; and when he returned, he wrote a book giving an account of his travels. Other adventurers followed in his footsteps, and in time trade began between Europe and Asia. People were anxious to obtain the gold, the jewels, and the silks of these eastern countries.

The merchants engaged in this trade were accustomed to go by vessel to the eastern coast of the Mediterranean and then



travel across the deserts in large caravans. But the year 1453 changed all this. The Turks were in control of the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea and the Turkish pirates plundered all the vessels of Christian nations. Trade with the East came to an end. What was to be done? Christian Europe did not dare to drive out the Turks; it was too hard a task for them. If trade was to be renewed, new routes must be found. Could India be reached by water? Could ships sail down the west coast of Africa, reach the end of land, and then proceed east to Asia? Such were the questions that navigators began to ask. Portuguese sailors, little by little, reached points farther south on the coast of Africa until, just before the end of the century, Vasco da Gama passed around the Cape of Good Hope and reached India in triumph. A new route had thus been found.



AN EARLY ENGLISH GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

Meanwhile an Italian, believing that the world was round but much smaller than it really is, conceived the idea that he might sail around the world, and that by sailing westward he might reach the scarcely known eastern lands. We all know what ups and downs Columbus met as he tried to obtain a chance to prove his theory: how he could not persuade his native city of Genoa to furnish the means; how the king of Portugal deceived him; how the king and queen of Spain were too busy to help him; how he sent his brother to petition Henry VII. of England; how he started for France and was recalled; and how Queen Isabella furnished him with a part of the necessary funds. And after this

degree of success, we remember what difficulties he had in obtaining sailors; what troubles these ignorant seamen caused him on the voyage; how a mutiny was nearly successful; and how, at last, he discovered the little island of Guanahani (Hwán-a-há-ni), one of the West Indies.

All this we well know, but it was a wonderful story in its day. Here the advantages of the printing press showed themselves: when Columbus returned to Spain, accounts of his journey were printed and scattered broadcast. They were carried to Italy and translated into Italian. They were printed in French and German, and they even reached England. One copy must have fallen into the hands of a sailor who, though born in Italy, had become a citizen of Bristol, England.

John Cabot had spent nearly his whole life upon the water. He had sailed from Venice to almost every port on the Mediterranean, and had frequently passed through the Straits of Gibraltar to French and English harbors. He had traveled somewhat upon the land, and once at Mecca, the holy city of the Mohammedans, he had seen caravans from the East laden with spices and jewels. Like Columbus, he had studied geography and believed that the world was round, and not flat.

When he arrived in England on one of his voyages, he was asked to take command of an English vessel. He gladly accepted the offer, and was so pleased with his new work that he decided to settle in Bristol, and become an Englishman. Merchants sent him here and there on various voyages, some even being voyages of discovery. Great and rich islands were supposed to exist somewhere in the Atlantic Ocean, and Cabot set out to seek them. He did not find them, for they were not there, nor did he go far enough west to see land; but he became accustomed to sail upon new and strange waters, and to see odd and unfamiliar sights.

When Cabot read the story of Columbus's voyage, he remem-

bered the caravans he had seen at Mecca. In his study of geography and the shape of the earth, he had come to the conclusion that the farther north one went the smaller round the world was. He argued to himself that it would be a shorter distance in a straight western line from England to the land of silks and jewels than from Spain. England had been at a disadvantage in the trade with the East because, of all of the countries of Europe, it was the most distant by the overland route. Now, thought Cabot, England is really the nearest to Japan and China.

Cabot asked Henry VII. for permission to make such a western voyage. King Henry granted his request, but, unlike Queen Isabella, gave no assistance, and, moreover, he required that Cabot should pay to him one-fifth of all the gold he obtained. It was not so difficult for Cabot to find sailors who were willing to go on a strange voyage as it had been for Columbus, for the news of the Columbus voyage had reached even the common seamen.

Columbus had sailed with three vessels; Cabot went with but one. This vessel, called the *Matthew*, was very small and carried a crew of eighteen men. The voyage began in May, and could not have been a difficult one, because land was discovered in



THE CABOT MEMORIAL TOWER AT  
BRISTOL.

June. This, the first land seen by Cabot, was called New-found-land, and is supposed to have been Cape Breton Island in the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. It was a small, uninhabited island, not the rich, populous country of Japan. Nevertheless it was land, and must, Cabot thought, be near to the countries which he sought. Planning to make another voyage the next year, Cabot returned to England. Here he was welcomed with open arms. He was called "the great admiral"; wherever he went, crowds followed; and the king made him a present of ten pounds.

This reward would seem to be a very small gift from a king, but Henry VII. was not a rich man. Owen Tudor, his grandfather, a Welsh nobleman and soldier, had spent much of his fortune in fighting for the house of Lancaster. Henry Tudor, before he became king, was really a poor man. As king, he did not come into great wealth. Henry VI., his queen, and their followers had emptied the treasury in paying the armies with which they fought Richard and Edward of York. Richard III. used what money he could obtain in trying to keep the kingdom. Therefore, when the Wars of the Roses were over, the new king found himself much like his subjects. He was the head of a great and growing nation, but both he and his people were poor and must practice economy.

Cabot made his second voyage the next year, but of what happened then almost nothing is known. Although so little can be told of Cabot's history, the results of his voyages have been of the greatest importance. The first voyage by which he discovered the North American mainland was made five years after the first voyage of Columbus, in the year 1497. This is the seventh great date in English history—the year of England's first step toward colonization.

The voyages of John Cabot were of more value to England than her greatest victories at Crécy or Agincourt. Because Cabot touched the eastern coast of North America before any

other European, England laid claim to all this land, while Spain took possession of most of South America and the entire southern portion of North America. Because of John Cabot's discovery, Virginia and Plymouth were settled by Englishmen. Other English colonies followed, and to-day England's greatness is due, to a large extent, to her colonies of Canada, Australia, South Africa, and others of scarcely less importance. John Cabot led the way to English colonization.

Give an account of the invention of printing; its introduction into England.

Tell the story of the capture of Constantinople and the "Revival of Learning."

Describe the travels of Marco Polo and the trade with the East; the trials and successes of Columbus.

Tell the story of John Cabot: his early life, his studies, his voyages to America.

What reasons did people have for thinking that the world was flat? Why were the European nations powerless against the Turks? How did printing aid discovery? If Columbus had not discovered America, do you suppose it would always have remained unknown? Who really did discover America, Columbus or Cabot? What are the first six great dates in English history?

**If it plese ony man spiriuel or temporel to bye ony  
pyes of two and thre comemoraciōs of salisbury use  
empryntid after the forme of this prelet lettre whiche  
ben wel and truly correct, late hym come to westmo-  
nester in to the almoneshe at the reed pale and he that  
haue them good chepe .v.**

[If it please any man, spiritual or temporal, to buy any pyes of two and three commemorations of Salisbury use empyrinted after the form of this present letter, which be well and truly correct, let him come to Westminster into the Almonry at the red pale, and he shall have them good chepe.]



CARDINAL WOLSEY

## CHAPTER XVI.

# Cardinal Wolsey.

1471-1530.

THE same year that saw the death of Henry VI. and the murder of Prince Edward of Lancaster, a son was born to Robert Wolsey, a well-to-do merchant of Ipswich. This boy showed himself bright and quick above the average, and his father determined to fit him for the priesthood. Accordingly he was sent to college at the early age of eleven, and was graduated from Oxford with the degree of Bachelor of Arts at fifteen.

The "young boy bachelor," as he was called, was in time appointed master of the grammar school connected with the college. Among his pupils were the sons of the Marquis of Dorset, who was so well pleased with Wolsey that he made him rector of the church at Lymington. The next year he became chaplain to the Archbishop of Canterbury, and at his death was taken into the employ of the Governor of Calais, who recommended him to Henry VII.

It happened that King Henry VII. was anxious to send a secret



message to the Emperor of Germany. One of his advisers recommended Wolsey as a bright and alert young man who would make a good messenger. Accordingly, Henry sent for him, gave the instructions, and told him to hasten. Wolsey allowed nothing to delay him. He set out at once from the court, reached London at four o'clock in the afternoon, traveled all night on horseback to Dover, crossed the Channel in the forenoon, and, hastening onward, reached the emperor that same night. Having obtained an immediate interview and received a reply, Wolsey was off again in time to catch the vessel that bore him across the Channel on its return trip. He reached Dover at ten o'clock and the court the same evening. He obtained a night's rest and presented himself to the king the next morning. Henry, thinking that Wolsey had not gone to Germany, began to reprove him. "May it please your Highness," replied Wolsey, "I have been to the emperor and executed my commission to the satisfaction, I trust, of your Grace." Kneeling, he presented the letters from Maximilian. Such was the beginning of Wolsey's political life.

We cannot trace minutely the career of Thomas Wolsey during the next few years. He became a secretary of Fox, the Lord Privy Seal—that is, the official who had charge of the royal seal and who alone had the right to place the seal upon official papers. When Fox grew old, Wolsey succeeded him. For his services during a war with France and Scotland he was made Bishop of Tournay (Toor-nā'), and the next year Bishop of Lincoln. In a few months he was given the archbishopric of York also.

Wolsey was thus placed in charge of three bishoprics, one of which was across the Channel, in France. No man could attend to the duties of these three offices at once, and, in fact, Wolsey did not attend to the duties of any one of them. He appointed others to act in his place, giving them a meager salary while he himself retained the enormous revenues. He became perhaps

the richest man in England, and when Henry VIII. made him chancellor, he occupied a position equaled by no one since the time of Thomas à Becket. He had even more power than Becket, for the latter was simply Archbishop of Canterbury, while Wolsey in time became a cardinal. Just as an archbishop has control of many bishops, so a cardinal has authority over archbishops.

The luxury which surrounded Cardinal Wolsey had scarcely been exceeded by that of any Englishman before his time. Whenever he rode out, he was preceded by two of the tallest and comeliest priests he could find in the realm, "each bearing a great cross of silver." His guard was composed of the largest and finest-looking men in England, and his household servants were men of rank. He had a priest for his steward and a knight for his treasurer, and his cook "went daily in velvet and satin and a gold chain." His entertainments were in keeping with the rest of his magnificence.

The royal feasts were not less gorgeous than those of the chancellor-cardinal; for when the king was host, Wolsey was the power behind the throne. The most luxurious and extravagant of all King Henry's displays was that at the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Such was the name given to the plain near Calais, where Henry VIII. held a love feast with King Francis I. of France. French artists and skilled workmen provided a tent for their king which was considered most wonderful in its beauty. It was of immense size, upheld by a large pole and covered with a cloth of gold lined with blue velvet, having the sun, the moon, and the stars worked in gold. The tent was held by cords of blue silk entwined with threads of gold and was surmounted by a golden figure of Saint Michael. Unfortunately a high wind destroyed the beautiful blue tent and compelled Francis to take shelter in the old castle of Ardres (Ard'r).

No wind could destroy the residence built for the temporary use of the king of England. It was made of English timber,

framed before being brought across the Channel. The outside was covered with canvas painted to resemble stone work; within were halls and chambers and galleries, and even a royal chapel. In fact, the king and his household were in as comfortable quarters as if they had been at home.

On the first day of the entertainment the two kings set out



*From the painting by Sir John Gilbert.*

CARDINAL WOLSEY AND HIS SUITE.

on horseback, decked with all the silver and gold that could possibly be used. When they met they dismounted, and entering a tent that had been especially prepared, enjoyed a sumptuous banquet. Thus the feast was opened, and for six days there followed a carnival of jousts, tilting, wrestling, and other athletic sports. On the last day of the feast each king visited the other's queen. King Henry, clothed like Hercules, in a lion's skin of cloth of gold, escorted his sister Mary, who was dressed in white

and crimson satin. They were attended by a large retinue. When half way to the French encampment, they met a fantastic chariot containing King Francis and the other French maskers. They passed as if strangers. Henry, with his attendants, partook of supper with Queen Claude, while Francis sat down to table with Queen Katharine. When the parties met on their return, the kings stopped, embraced each other, gave and received presents, and bade farewell. Thus ended a "true midsummer night's dream."

Such a carnival could not have been prepared by the English at any time previous to the reign of Henry VIII. Not only had wealth been lacking, but skill and intelligence as well. Surely it was a proof of growth among the English people. But how much they still had to learn! Compare the Field of the Cloth of Gold with one of our modern expositions like the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo. The Field of the Cloth of Gold was of no permanent advantage to any one; it only gratified a few people for a short time. The modern exposition of the manufactures and products of the world educates and helps all peoples.

Like Becket, as chancellor, Cardinal Wolsey used all his power to promote the king's interests. Unlike Becket, as the high official of the Church in England, Wolsey still planned to carry out the king's wishes. His ambition was great. Born of humble parentage, he had risen step by step to be second only to the king in the government of England, and to the Pope in the control of the offices of the Church. He desired one thing more; he strove to be Pope. But all his power, though due primarily to his own ability, was dependent upon the will of one man. If ever Cardinal Wolsey lost the friendship of Henry VIII., he was ruined. This was ever likely to happen, and at the moment when Cardinal Wolsey had almost reached the highest point of his ambition, he fell, losing everything, even his life. The cause of the trouble was the king's marriage.

Years before, Henry VII. had betrothed his eldest son Arthur to Katharine, the Infanta of Spain. The young couple were married by proxy, and the girl wife made the perilous voyage to England to join her husband. When Henry heard of the arrival of the Spanish party, he set out with his son Arthur, but was met by messengers who told him that, in accordance with the Moorish etiquette which had been adopted by King Ferdinand of Spain, the Infanta must not be looked upon by any man, least of all by her husband or his father, until she appeared at the marriage altar. King Henry was much incensed at such a message. By the advice of his council, which met then and there in the pouring rain, Henry sent word, "As the Spanish Infanta is now in the heart of this realm of which I, King Henry, am master, I may look at her if I like."



HENRY VIII.

A brilliant wedding followed, but within six months Prince Arthur was dead and Katharine was a widow at sixteen, a stranger in a strange land. King Henry, however, was still anxious for the Spanish alliance, and compelled his only surviving son, Henry, to become betrothed to his brother's widow, who was four years his senior. This was contrary to the laws of the Church, but Pope Julian granted a special permission. Henry was in no haste to marry, and for several years poor Katharine continued in England, the widow of one Prince of Wales and the betrothed of another.

When Henry VIII. came to the throne, he felt it necessary





*From the painting by Harlow.*

THE TRIAL OF QUEEN KATHARINE.

for the welfare of his kingdom to carry out his promise, so he married Katharine. For many years there was apparent happiness in the royal family. When, years afterward, Katharine was brought to trial, she flung herself at the king's feet, saying:

"Sire, I beseech you to pity me, a woman and a stranger, without an assured friend and with an indifferent counselor. I take God to witness that I have always been to you a true and loyal wife, that I have made it my constant duty to seek your pleasure, that I have loved all whom you loved, whether I have reason or not, whether they were friends to me, or foes. If there be any offence that can be alleged against me I pray you do me justice."



The king in spite of himself was compelled to say :

“ She hath all the virtues and good qualities that belong to a woman of her dignity, or to any other of meaner estate. Surely she is a noble woman.”

Nevertheless, in spite of Henry's great respect for Katharine, he desired to marry another woman. Perhaps he had come to believe that he had no right to marry Katharine contrary to the rules of the Church, but had it not been for the beautiful face of Anne Boleyn (Bul'-en), one of the queen's maids of honor, it is doubtful if he would have sought a divorce from his wife. Such a divorce could be obtained only from the Pope. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Church did not dare to do anything that would displease the Spanish court ; still, he was unwilling to say no to the king of England. Doubtless, also, he was uncertain what he ought to do. Therefore he did nothing, but in every way caused delays to prevent a decision. At one time the question of the divorce was referred by the Pope to a commission of two, consisting of Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio (Kam-pěd'-jo). What was Wolsey to do? He knew that if he decided for Katharine, he would lose all favor with the king. If he decided for the king, it would simply result in putting power into the hands of Anne Boleyn and her family, who were already beginning to be his serious rivals. Whether he gave decision for or against Katharine, he would injure himself. He also delayed, and finally referred the matter back to the Pope.

The king, angry at the delays of the Pope, was easily made to believe that Wolsey was opposed to the divorce. The next few steps, though of immense importance, were easily taken. Wolsey was deposed from his chancellorship and sent home to his archbishopric of York. Henry declared himself the true head of the Church, thereby refusing to acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, and withdrawing his people from the Roman Catholic Church. Wolsey, charged with being a traitor, would doubtless

have been executed, had not overwork and anxiety so weakened him as to cause his death. Just before he died, Wolsey said :

“ If I had served God as diligently as I have the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs. Howbeit, this is the just reward that I must receive for my worldly diligence and pains that I had to do him service, only to satisfy his vain pleasures, not regarding my godly duty.”

As supreme head of the Church, Henry granted the divorce desired by himself as king of England. He persuaded Parliament to pass the necessary acts forbidding any obedience to the Pope and ordering that all should take oath acknowledging the spiritual power of the king. In this peculiar way England ceased to be Catholic and began its career as a Protestant nation. It should be remembered, however, that many of the people of England had already become Protestants in their beliefs, and they welcomed the action of the king.

Let us pass over as briefly as possible the period of religious changes which followed the fall of Wolsey. But let us remember that the Catholics believed that they were right and that all who disagreed with them were wrong, and that the Protestants were equally sure of the truth of their position.

Henry VIII. lived several years after the death of Wolsey. When he died, he was succeeded by his ten-year-old son Edward VI. During his six years' reign the government was wholly in the hands of his guardian, who was one of the most zealous of Protestants. Edward was succeeded by his sister Mary, the only daughter of Katharine of Spain. Mary was naturally a Catholic, and for the five years of her reign she made reconciliation with the Pope, and spent her time in persecuting the Protestants. After her death, Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, and the only surviving child of Henry VIII., became queen. For forty-five years she reigned, and during the whole time she was truly queen. Taking warning from the mistakes of her brother's

advisers, she made very gradual changes from the Catholicism of Mary to the Protestantism which has, since her reign, controlled England. Her reign was one of the most important in England, and it will be treated in the two following chapters.

Tell the story of the early life of Thomas Wolsey ; how he won the attention of the king ; how he advanced from one office to another ; his luxurious life.

Give an account of the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

Contrast the characters of Becket and Wolsey.

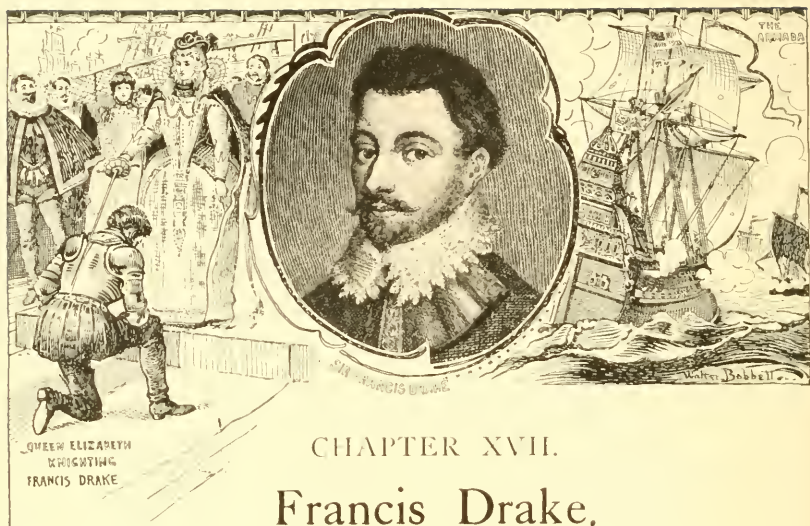
Tell the story of Queen Katharine : as princess ; as the wife of Henry ; of the divorce.

Describe Wolsey's position ; his fall ; his death.

Why did Wolsey succeed? Is it possible for wealthy or prominent men to look after all the details of their office? Of what must they have a care? Is it right for a man to receive returns for work which he does not do? What use is there in such exhibitions as the Field of the Cloth of Gold? Is anybody helped by them? In what respects were the careers of Becket and Wolsey similar? Who was hurt most by all the delays of Pope and cardinal? What was Henry's chief characteristic?



KNIGHTS IN TOURNEY.



## CHAPTER XVII.

# Francis Drake.

1540(?)–1596.

FRANCIS DRAKE, like Thomas Wolsey, did not belong to a noble family; his parents were people of moderate means living in the county of Devon. Francis was born during the latter part of the reign of Henry VIII., and the boy was still playing about his father's house when that king died. Meanwhile the family had moved to Kent, and when six years later Queen Mary succeeded her brother Edward, the youth of thirteen was running about the docks. When Mary in turn was succeeded by her sister Elizabeth, Drake, a full-grown man, was making voyages between the ports of the English Channel. A few years later the owner of the vessel in which he sailed died, leaving it to Drake in his will. For several years he continued his coasting trade, but hearing of an expedition that was about to set out under the command of his cousin, Sir John Hawkins, Drake sold his vessel, bought a faster one called the *Judith*, and proceeded to Plymouth to join his cousin.

Sir John Hawkins was at this time the best known and the most popular seaman in England. He was also well known in Spain, intensely hated, and greatly feared. He had made several trips to the African coast, obtained cargoes of negroes, and sold them as slaves in the Spanish West Indies, which was contrary to Spanish laws and was considered the worst form of smuggling.

The fleet in this new expedition of Hawkins consisted of five vessels, including the *Judith*. Sir John was in command of the *Jesus*. From the first the voyage was unpropitious. A violent storm severely injured the vessels, but they succeeded in reaching the Canaries, where the necessary repairs were made. The negroes were obtained with little difficulty and sold in the West Indies with great profit; but hardly had Hawkins turned homeward when the fleet was struck by a West India hurricane and driven into the Gulf of Mexico. Reaching the harbor of San Juan de Ulloa (Sān Hōō-ān' dā oōl-yo'-ā), a Spanish port not far from Vera Cruz (Vā'rā Krōōs), Hawkins was repairing his vessels when a Spanish admiral, who had been sent out to seek for him, appeared with a fleet of thirteen heavily armed vessels. What could the English seaman do? He sent a message to the admiral stating that he was an Englishman, that he was in possession of the port, and that he could not admit a Spanish fleet until he had been assured that no injury would be done him. As a storm was brewing, the Spaniard found himself compelled to make the required promise. He was permitted to enter and moor his vessels at the opposite end of the harbor.

One can imagine the anger of the Spanish admiral when he learned that the Englishman was the very man he was seeking. The Spaniard considered Hawkins a pirate, and doubtless he felt that he need not keep his word with a pirate; at any rate, he did not keep his promise, for he suddenly attacked the English fleet. The *Jesus* and two other vessels were destroyed. The *Judith* and a fifth vessel called the *Minion* succeeded in getting

out of the harbor; Hawkins with a remnant of his crew leaped into a rowboat and managed to reach the *Minion*. They were thus compelled to sail for England with vessels unrepaired and with none of the wealth which they had acquired from the expedition. After many hardships the two vessels succeeded in reaching Plymouth, though not together.

Drake had had his first long voyage. He had made one slave-trading expedition, and one was sufficient; he never made



THE HOME OF SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

another. He had met the Spaniards and, as he thought, had found them treacherous and bloodthirsty. They had captured his hard-earned profits, and he had returned a ruined man. From this time forth he considered that he had the right to take any Spanish property he could find, at least until he made up his own loss. Four years he waited, restoring his fortunes and recovering from his great disaster, and then he set out on a secret expedition.



He had learned that immense treasures of gold and silver for the Spanish government were carried from the mines of Peru by water to Panama, thence across the isthmus on the backs of mules, and then put on vessels to cross the Atlantic. He determined to capture this treasure as it crossed the isthmus. Stationing himself in ambush by the side of the trail, he awaited the coming of the mule train. When the tinkling of the mules' bells were heard, his band stepped out across the path; the guards immediately fled and the booty fell without bloodshed into Drake's hands. The silver was buried, but the gold, rubies, and diamonds were carried to the ship, which made a prosperous voyage back to England. The adventurers shared the spoils and then held their tongues.

Drake was ready now for a larger undertaking. With two vessels, the *Pelican* and the *Elizabeth*, he sailed for the Pacific Ocean, where no English ship had ever been. Three weeks were required to pass through the Straits of Magellan, a distance of seventy miles, and when Drake reached the Pacific, he found the stormiest waters that he had seen. A gale drove the ships around the Horn, and for the first time it was known that Tierra del Fuego (Tē-ēr'-rā dēl Fwā'-gō) did not reach to the South Pole, and that it was not necessary to use the Straits of Magellan to go from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Captain Winter, of the *Elizabeth*, had seen all the storms he wished, and, without saying a word to Drake, he sailed for England.

Drake continued his voyage and finally reached the harbor of Valparaiso (Val-pa-rī'-sō), where he captured a Spanish vessel carrying four hundred pounds of gold. Thence he sailed north along the coast, capturing several vessels, and taking vast quantities of silver, gold, and jewels. At last, thinking that he had accomplished enough for one voyage, he decided to take his course for home. Turning the prow of his vessel northward, he skirted the coast of North America until he entered the harbor

of San Francisco. Continuing north, he searched the coasts of California and Oregon for the western end of a northerly passage through the continent; but the weather grew so cold that he concluded that, if he found the passage which he supposed must surely exist, it would be impassable because of ice. He retraced his course, and reëntered the harbor of San Francisco, where he spent the winter. In the spring he crossed the Pacific, passed around the Cape of Good Hope, continued along the western coast of Africa and Europe, and, having met with no Spanish vessel, entered the harbor of Plymouth, England.

His arrival was none too welcome to the councilors of Queen Elizabeth. They were afraid that this roving seaman, who, in a time of nominal peace, had done so much to injure Spanish trade, might yet bring on war. Nevertheless, Queen Elizabeth believed in Drake, and she considered that whoever injured a Spaniard did her a service. She honored the successful sailor by being present at a banquet given on board his vessel, and by making him a knight. Elizabeth gave orders that this vessel, which had made such a wonderful voyage, should be carefully preserved. A century afterwards, when the timbers had become so decayed that they would not hold together, a chair was made from the best preserved wood, and it is now kept at Oxford as a great historical relic.

Sir Francis Drake, not content with depriving Spain of its wealth, next determined to attack the Spanish colonies. He made another expedition, in which he captured and held for ransom three of the most important cities of the West Indies. On his return he stopped at Roanoke Island in South Carolina, and carried home the surviving members of Raleigh's ill-fated colony.

If Malek Rik was a name that caused terror among the Saracens, and the Black Prince among the French, that of Sir Francis Drake was the source of even more consternation in Spain. A Spanish poet wrote an epic entitled "The Dragontea,"

in which the exploits of Sir Francis Drake are described as acts of the utmost wickedness; for in the eyes of the Spaniards Drake was a dragon, capable of the most terrible things. He caused such fear that on one occasion the admiral commanding the most powerful vessel of the Spanish fleet, learning that the little ship opposed to him was commanded by Drake, turned and fled, fearing, notwithstanding the great odds in his favor, to attack such a monster.

After many years of professions of peace and good-will, Philip II., king of Spain, began preparations to destroy the English navy,—commanded by such men as Hawkins and Drake,—to conquer England itself, and to bring the English people back into the Catholic Church. Drake learned that a part of the Spanish fleet was being prepared at Cadiz (Ka'diz). He suddenly appeared in the harbor with a few vessels, and within sight of the people of the town burned and destroyed most of the Spanish fleet. Drake "singd the king's beard," as he said, and Philip had to give up his plans until the next year.

At last the immense Armada (Ar-mā'da) set sail from the Spanish ports. Drake's exploit at Cadiz had given the English another year of preparation, and the British fleet and armies were waiting for the invader. Yet the Spaniards came upon them unexpectedly. Drake and the other commanders were playing bowls after dinner, when one of the captains rushed in with the news that the enemy was in sight. All, panic-stricken, turned



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

to Drake, but he coolly went on with the game, saying, "There's time for that, and to beat the Spaniards after." Beacon fires were lighted on the hills, and before morning all England knew that the crisis had come.

"Such night in England ne'er had been,  
Nor e'er again shall be.  
From Eddystone to Berwick bounds,  
From Lynn to Milford Bay,  
The time of slumber was as bright  
And busy as the day ;  
For swift to east and swift to west  
The ghastly war-flame spread,  
High on St. Michael's Mount it shone ;  
It shone on Beachy Head.  
Far on the deep the Spaniards saw,  
Along each southern shire,  
Cape beyond cape in endless range,  
Those twinkling points of fire."

The English fleet, under the command of Admiral Lord Howard, with Sir Francis Drake as vice-admiral, hung about the Spanish line like angry bees. The enemy's vessels were large and slow ; the English were small, but quick-sailing. If a ship lagged behind the line, it was immediately surrounded and sunk. So many were thus lost that the Spanish commander turned his fleet into the harbor of Calais, and there the English sent in fire ships, which burned many of the remaining vessels. Fearful of losing the entire fleet, the Spanish admiral sailed away to the north, closely followed by Drake and his brave Englishmen.

Queen Elizabeth was much like her grandfather, Henry VII. ; she was unwilling to spend even necessary money. The English fleet was not properly fitted out with either provisions or ammunition, so it could follow the enemy but a short distance. The

Spaniards, not daring to turn about, attempted to sail around the islands. Storms rose, and vessel after vessel was wrecked upon the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland; and only a small fragment of the great Armada reached Spain. The Spanish supremacy of the seas was lost forever.



THE FIGHT AGAINST THE SPANISH ARMADA.

Drake made two more expeditions against the Spanish ports, but disagreements among the commanders caused the failure of each. Disappointment, together with the hardships which he had undergone, brought about the death of the admiral when he was but fifty years of age.

What shall we think of a man like Sir Francis Drake? To-day we would call him a pirate, capturing vessels without right. If war had existed, such captures would have been perfectly proper; but when Francis Drake seized Spanish vessels in the Pacific Ocean, England and Spain claimed to be at peace, though each desired to begin war as soon as it dared, and each was more than ready to injure the other in every possible way. Doubtless Drake felt that he was working for his queen as well as for his own advantage. Let us not judge too severely those who lived in a different age from our own. Drake was a skillful sailor, and to him, more than to any other, England owed her protection from the terrors which would have ensued had the Armada been successful.

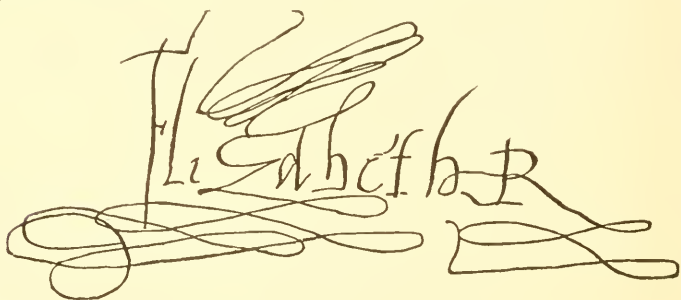
Tell the story of Drake's early life; his first long voyage.

Give an account of the storm and the battle in the Gulf of Mexico.

Describe Drake's next long voyage; his adventures in the Pacific; his return home.

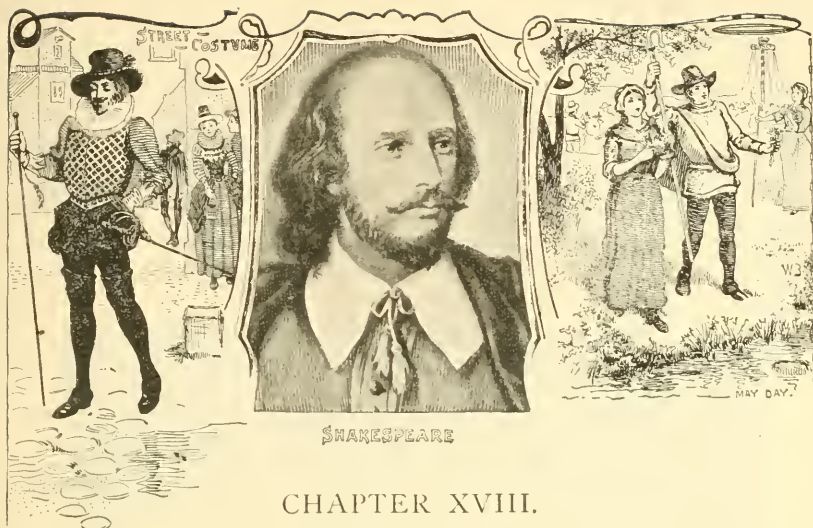
Tell the story of the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

Why were slaves needed in the West Indies? Should a promise be always kept? Why was one slave-trading expedition enough for Drake? Why did Drake bury the silver at Panama? What is the meaning of the word "Pacific"? What advantage was there in knowing that it was not necessary to use the Straits of Magellan to reach the Pacific? Who made the first voyage around the world? What gave Drake his great success in his dealings with the Spaniards? What is the meaning of the word "Armada"?



QUEEN ELIZABETH'S AUTOGRAPH.





## CHAPTER XVIII.

# William Shakespeare.

1564-1616.

EARLY in Elizabeth's reign a baby boy was born in the village of Stratford, in the center of England. The day we do not know, but the parish register gives April 26, 1564, as the day of his christening. Strangely, very little has been learned about his life as a country boy or as a city man. But what he wrote all can read, and scholars from his day to this have admired the genius of the man who could write so much and portray so truthfully the thought and the life of all kinds of men.

Stratford was a quaint town on the old Roman highway from London. Here the road crossed the Avon and gave a name to the place, Street-ford. When Shakespeare was a boy, the houses in the village were mostly of two stories, built of wood and plaster, with steep thatched roofs. Shakespeare's house had the unusual feature of a chimney, which was probably much envied

by some and laughed at by others. These new chimneys, though they often smoked, were a great improvement over the former fireplaces under holes in the center of the roofs. The open fires filled the rooms with smoke, and required constant care lest the snapping sparks should kindle the rushes on the floors. General fires were frequent, and every family was obliged, at night, to cover with ashes each bright coal, draw the shutters over the opening in the roof, put out the lights, and go to bed when the



THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL AT STRATFORD.

curfew bell rang. In time every householder was compelled by law to build a chimney, which caused some grumbling; "For," said one writer of the sixteenth century, "as the smoke was supposed to be a sufficient hardening for the timber of the house, so it was reported to be a far better medicine to keep the goodman and his family from the quake or pose," which means from throat and head colds.

Children had no picture books in Shakespeare's time, but

they had many fairy tales, stories of marvelous feats in battle, and legends that had come down through many generations. We can imagine how,

“Then done the tales, to bed they creep,”

listening for the coming of the goblins, if they had been naughty, or for the voices of the fairies that every child, and grown folks, too, firmly believed to exist.

Beds, in the country houses, had grown more comfortable than they had previously been. William Harrison, who lived in the latter part of the sixteenth century, wrote: “Our fathers and ourselves have lien full oft upon straw pallets covered only with a sheet, . . . and a good round log under their heads instead of a bolster. If it were that our fathers or the goodman of the house had a mattress or a flock-bed, and thereto a sack of chaff to rest his head upon, he thought himself to be as well lodged as the lord of the town, so well were they contented.” Now bedsteads were taking the place of the floor, feather-beds were used instead of pallets, and pillows instead of blocks of wood. The well and strong enjoyed comforts before thought almost too great luxuries even for sick women.

When he was seven years old, William was sent to the grammar school at Stratford. These schools were open not only to children of wealthy parents, as in later days, but to every one. The principal study was Latin, but first each child must learn his letters, and the master “teaches boys the horn book.” A horn book was a single sheet of paper on which was printed the alphabet in large and small letters, some combinations of vowels and consonants, such as ab, ba, ad, da, and the Lord’s Prayer. This was framed and covered with a thin sheet of horn, “to save from fingers wet the letters fair.” The alphabet learned, Latin was begun, and children were taught not only the grammar and translation, but to write and talk in Latin.

In "The Merry Wives of Windsor" Shakespeare tells a story of a schoolboy. He was walking with his mother when they met Sir Hugh Evans, the schoolmaster. Their conversation was as follows:

MRS. PAGE. How now, Sir Hugh? no school to-day?

EVANS. No; Master Slender is get the boys leave to play.

. . . . .

MRS. P. Sir Hugh, my husband says my son profits nothing in the world at his books: I pray you ask him some questions in his accidence.

EVANS. Come hither, William: hold up your head; come.

MRS. P. Come on, sirrah; hold up your head; answer your master, be not afraid.

EVANS. William, how many numbers is in nouns?

WILLIAM. Two.

. . . . .

EVANS. What is fair, William?

WILLIAM. *Pulcher*.

. . . . .

EVANS. What is *lapis*, William?

WILLIAM. A stone.

EVANS. And what is a stone, William?

WILLIAM. A pebble.

EVANS. No, it is *lapis*; I pray you remember in your prain.

WILLIAM. *Lapis*.

EVANS. That is good. . . . Show me now, William, some declensions of your pronouns.

WILLIAM. Forsooth, I have forgot.

EVANS. It is *qui*, *quæ*, *quod*; if you forget your *quis*, your *quæ*s, and your *quods*, you must be preeches. Go your ways, and play; go.

MRS. P. He is a better scholar than I thought he was.

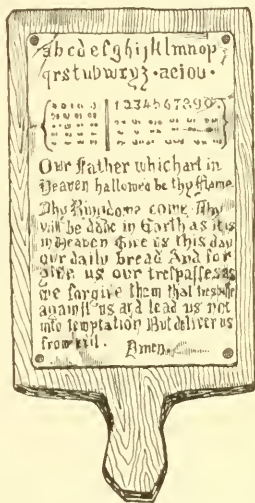
EVANS. He is a good sprag memory. Farewell, Mistress Page.

Boys liked to play then as well as they do now. Even

“The whining schoolboy, with his satchel  
And shining morning face, creeping like snail,  
Unwillingly to school,”

could run and jump fast enough when the lessons were recited. The games we play now are very old. Our fathers played blindman's buff, hide-and-seek, and prison-bars; so did their fathers and their fathers' fathers, and so did the children four hundred years ago. Boys hunted and fished, played football and cricket, and had many other sports, some of which are now considered rough and cruel.

All looked forward eagerly to the many holidays and feast-days, when even men and women romped and played like children. The chief of these days was St. George's Day. St. George, so the legend says, was a great warrior who went to the Holy Land to fight the Saracens; somehow he wandered into Egypt, where he saw a huge dragon whose breath was so poisonous that it had destroyed many cities. No warrior could be found brave enough to attack this hideous creature, even if his sword had been strong enough to pierce its scales. Therefore, to keep it from doing any further mischief, a beautiful maiden was placed before its cavern every day. George not only rescued the princess who was the dragon's breakfast for that day, but slew the monster and escaped unharmed to England. These improbable adventures made him the popular English saint and the hero of soldiers.



A HORN BOOK.

Great celebrations were held on his feast-day. Through the gayly decorated town a procession passed amid ringing bells and blowing trumpets. The schoolboys in their caps and gowns, and the officers and great men of the parish preceded the figure of St. George dressed in flashing armor, who was followed by a hissing and writhing representation of the dragon "led in chains with the spear of St. George down his throat." And the people shouted, "Saint George for England! Saint George for England!"

Another delightful holiday was May Day. Old and young went to the woods, gathered trees and branches, and selected a Maypole. Yokes of oxen, freshly cleaned and decorated with flowers, dragged the pole to the village green, where it was set up amid dancing and shouting. One of the village beauties was chosen Queen of the May, who, before the day was done,

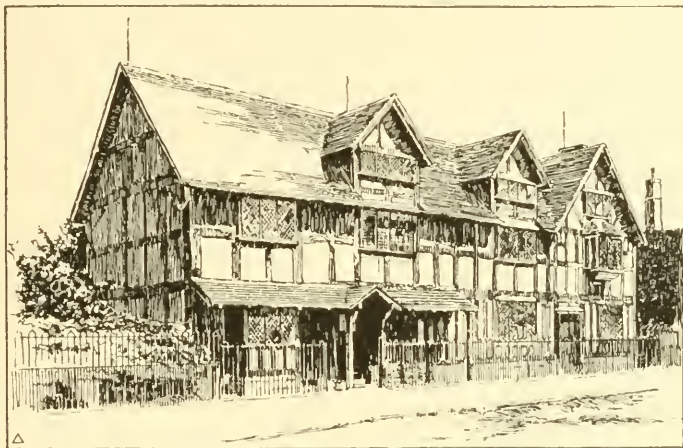
"Calls the youngsters one by one,  
And for their well performance, soon dispenses  
To this a garland intertwined with roses;  
To that a carved hook or well wrought script;  
Gracing another with her cherry lip;  
To one her garter; to another then  
A handkerchief cast o'er and o'er again;  
And none returneth empty that hath spent,  
His pains to fill their rural merriment."

But times had changed in the cottage at Stratford. Merriment and joy had almost ceased. William's father, who had been a prosperous merchant, had become poor. The boy had grown to be a man with ambitions not to be satisfied by a little country town, and one morning he started on horseback, like many another, to seek fame and fortune in London.

London was thought by Englishmen to be a magnificent city, though foreigners thought otherwise. The streets were



still narrow, though a little cleaner, perhaps, than in Wat Tyler's time; for they were brushed up whenever a procession was to pass, and public opinion had advanced far enough to banish rubbish heaps, at least to the back yard. It had one beautiful highway, the river Thames. All the streets grew better as the years went by, but the Thames grew worse, as it became more and more crowded with shipping. In the earlier days gardens and green banks came down to the water's edge,



THE BIRTHPLACE OF SHAKESPEARE.

swans swam gracefully by, and thousands of gayly decorated boats glided on its blue surface, the boatmen calling, "Westward hoe!" or "Eastward hoe!" to the passing craft.

London houses were vastly improved. The old gloomy castles and strongholds were passing away, and in their places appeared buildings more like homes than forts. Innumerable windows lighted up the rooms, and these windows had glass for panes; yet there were grumblers who found fault with this innovation, for no new thing is thankfully received by all. Even

the learned Francis Bacon, the wisest man of his age, said, "You shall have sometime your houses so full of glass, that we cannot tell where to come to be out of the sun or the cold."

Within, carpets had taken the place of the filthy rushes on the floors. No longer was it necessary to burn herbs and spices to cover the odors. Cloth of gold and richly embroidered silks hung upon the walls; elaborately carved chairs and cabinets stood about the room; and napkins and costly dishes were used at the tables. Table knives were to be had, but forks were not. Elizabeth is known to have had a fork, but probably she did not use it. In fact, forks did not come into common use until the middle of the seventeenth century, and when they were introduced a clergyman preached against them, on the ground that it was "an insult to Providence not to touch one's meat with one's fingers." Quite early in the seventeenth century a man named Thomas Coryate wrote a book describing his travels in Europe, and among the many strange things he saw were forks. He says:

"I obserued a custome in all those Italian Cities and Townes through which I passed that is not vsed in any other country that I saw in my trauels, neither doe I thinke that any other nation of Christiendome doth vse it, but only Italy. The Italians doe alwaies at their meales vse a little forke when they cut their meate. For while with their knife which they hold in one hand they cut the meate out of the dish, they fasten their forke which they hold in their other hand vpon the same dish, so that whatsoeuer he be that sitting in the company of any others at meate, should vnaduisedly touch the dish of meate with his fingers from which all at the table doe cut, he will giue occasion of offence vnto the company, as hauing transgressed the lawes of good manners. The reason of this their curiosity is, because the Italians cannot by any means endure to haue the

dish touched with fingers seeing all men's fingers are not alike cleane."

Elizabeth's reign was a prosperous period. She knew that peace was better for the whole nation than war, and when urged by her councilors to help this or that cause, she would bring her fist down on the table crying, "No war, my lords, no war." Consequently commerce grew, and the people increased their wealth. Their prosperity was shown not only in more comfortable houses, but in their dress. Elizabeth set the example, with her three thousand dresses decorated with pearls and lace. The men dressed as gorgeously as the women, and wore their silks and velvets on the streets, much to the amazement of foreigners, who considered that velvets should be reserved for indoor use. So much money was spent, that it was "a

small matter to bestow . . . ten pounds, twenty pounds, fifty pounds, yea one hundred pounds for one pair of breeches."

The streets of London swarmed with people whose dress almost rivaled tropical birds in variety of colors. All the adventurers, all the explorers were there, all the handsome noblemen, all those who could write or hoped to write. Each one expected to win the attention and favor of the Virgin Queen; for did not Elizabeth admire all brave deeds, all handsome men, all pretty verses?

Perhaps this friendly and encouraging disposition of the



THE GLOBE THEATER.

queen induced Shakespeare to come to London. Without doubt he had seen Elizabeth, for near Stratford was Kenilworth Castle, where she had been entertained for three weeks with extravagant ceremonies, in which even the country people had their part. Tradition says that Shakespeare began his London life by holding the horses of those who attended the theater at Smithfield, just without the city. Whether this is so or not, only a few years passed before he was owner, actor, and playwright, a "Johannes Factotum" or Jack-at-all-trades, as he was called, in one of the theaters.

No theater was allowed in London, partly because plays were looked upon by many as questionable amusements, and because they collected a disorderly crowd. Consequently, they were built across the Thames; and whenever a performance was to be given, a flag was raised where it could be seen in the city. The hour was three o'clock, and admission was a penny in the cheaper theaters, and sixpence in the better class, like the Globe Theater, where Shakespeare's plays were performed. This fee would admit only to the pit, which had no seats and no covering. Boxes were provided in some theaters for those who wanted seats; in others the most fashionable places were on the stage itself, where the young noblemen would spread their cloaks, having paid a good round sum for the privilege. They conversed with one another during the performance, and their servants passed around pipes and drinks. The people in the pit ate fruits and sausages, drank ale and smoked, for they had come early in order to get the best standing room.

The stage had a covering, but no scenery. A placard on the wall told where the scene was laid, whether in Europe or Asia, London, Paris, or Venice. If the play was a tragedy, the stage was hung with black; if a comedy, with blue, "while armies entered triumphant, or were driven off in defeat through one door," at the back of the stage. A motion like picking

flowers made a garden, and black hangings made night. The costumes, however, were appropriate and often expensive, and whatever the settings lacked was supplied by the imaginations of the audience. They thoroughly enjoyed it all, heartily expressed their approval, and as vigorously showed dissatisfaction.



THE THEATER IN SHAKESPEARE'S TIME.

The queen never attended these public theaters, but sometimes in the evening a successful play was repeated at the palace before the court. For this the actors were paid about ten pounds, the same as the usual receipt for an afternoon performance. An actor could hardly grow rich very fast, although a pound went much farther then than it does now. But Jack-at-



all-trades though he was, Shakespeare gathered enough property together to go back to Stratford, where he bought the best house in town and lived quietly until he died. He had taught the people much. By his historical plays he had shown them the glories and the mistakes of the past; they knew the history of England as they had never known it before. He had also shown them themselves; the courtier and the fool, the high and the base, the nobleman and the scoundrel, were faithfully portrayed. He did it kindly, and none could take offense.

Describe the village of Stratford, the houses, the furniture, the schools.

Tell the story of Saint George; of May Day.

Give an account of Shakespeare's life in London; what he saw; what he did.

Describe the plays and the theaters.

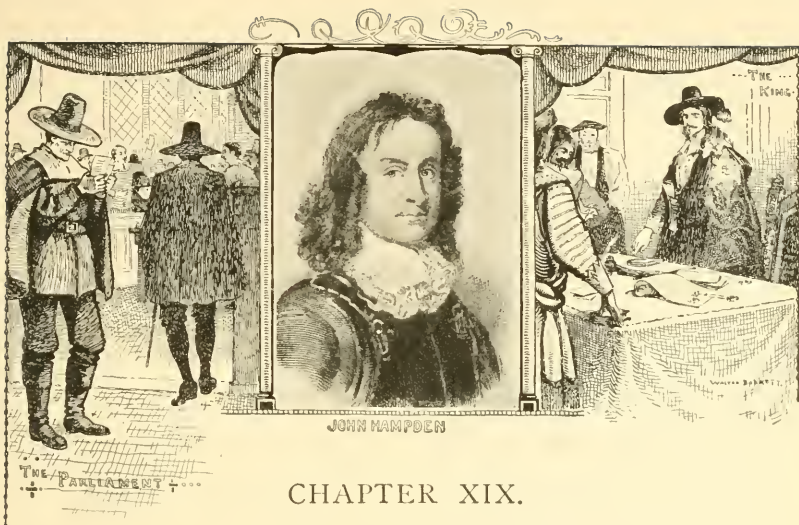
What is the meaning of curfew? Why has this custom recently been revived in many cities and towns? What do you think of the education of children in the sixteenth century as compared with the education of children to-day? Why is it that all inventions are opposed? Can you give some recent examples? How is the financial condition of a country shown by the dress and life of the people? How did Elizabeth show herself a wiser monarch than Edward III. or Henry V.?



*From a book of 1659.*

BOYS' SPORTS.





## CHAPTER XIX.

# John Hampden.

1594-1643.

QUEEN ELIZABETH, after a long reign of forty-five years, died at the age of seventy. For many weeks she had been ill, and all England was anxiously waiting the end. Scarcely had the queen ceased to breathe when Lady Scope, one of the ladies-in-waiting, dropped a sapphire ring from a window, beneath which stood Sir Robert Carey with horse saddled. Picking up the ring, Carey galloped northward, and by using the relay of horses that he had arranged to be stationed at various points along the road, he reached Edinburgh after a continuous ride of three days and two nights. At one time he was thrown from his horse and seriously injured, but this accident did not stop him. The king of Scotland had just retired for the night when the messenger was admitted to his bedchamber. With face covered with blood and dirt, Carey knelt and saluted him as King of Scotland, England, France, and Wales.

The name of this king was James Stuart. He was the sixth James of Scotland, but the first James on the throne of England. The grandfather of the first James Stuart was Walter the Steward, who married the daughter of Robert Bruce. His son Robert inherited the throne of Scotland. What right had this Scotch family of Stuarts to the throne of England? As Elizabeth Tudor died unmarried and left no brothers or sisters, the throne of England must pass to the descendants of her father's oldest sister, since he had no brother. This sister married the fourth James Stuart, and so the succession passed through her to her great-grandson, James VI. of Scotland, who became also James I. of England in 1603. This is the eighth great date of English history—the union of England and Scotland under one ruler.

Within a few days King James received official news of the death of the queen and an invitation from Parliament to come to England. He had been proclaimed king in London the morning after the queen's death, and there was nothing for him to do but take possession. James left the people of Edinburgh in tears. When he crossed the border, he was saluted by the thundering of cannon from the fortress of Berwick-upon-Tweed. All along the route he was given the heartiest of welcomes; and the country gentlemen vied with one another to do him honor. Not the least notable of the receptions given him was that of Sir Oliver Cromwell, and it may be that James saw here two little boys, John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell, who in later years were the strongest opponents of the house of Stuart.

Thus cordially was the new king received by the people of England. Though they disliked the Scotchman, they remembered the English blood that flowed in his veins. Though few believed in the Scottish form of Protestantism and the state church of that country, yet King James was dear to the people

of England as a stanch opponent of the Catholics. They were also glad, after two queens, to welcome a king to the throne. Within fifty years, however, the nation was plunged into a terrible civil war, and the son of this very James was beheaded by order of the government of the country. It seems almost impossible that any act of James and his son Charles could have produced such a change of feeling.

Both of these Stuart kings believed in the "divine right of kings"; that is, they claimed that they were appointed by God, and that whatever they did was right. "The king can do no wrong" was one of their mottoes. In some countries this presumption would not be questioned, but the English people were growing more and more to think for themselves in political and religious affairs. If James and Charles had learned anything from the English history of the past, they would have known that the common people of the seventeenth century would be even less willing to endure the tyranny of kings than their ancestors had been four hundred years before. They forgot the story of John and Magna Carta; they forgot Simon de Montfort and the first Parliament; they had learned nothing from Edward I., who obtained all the money he wanted by yielding to the wishes of Parliament. These Stuart kings, when they wished for money and Parliament refused to give it, dismissed Parliament and attempted to raise money without its help. This was not according to Eng-



JAMES I.

lish ideas of right. The story of John Hampden will show how all these difficulties resulted in civil war.

John Hampden was born in Buckinghamshire a few years before the close of the sixteenth century. He was not one of the nobility, for neither he nor any of his ancestors had been lords or even knights; but he belonged to a family that was prominent in England even before the Conquest. It was a Hampden who was adviser of Edward the Confessor; it was a Hampden who played tennis with Edward the Black Prince and fought at Crécy and Poitiers; it was a Hampden who, while sheriff of his county, entertained Queen Elizabeth at his own home with almost royal hospitality. Griffith Hampden, the son of this sheriff, married Elizabeth Cromwell, and John Hampden was their oldest son.

John was but an infant when, by the death of his father, he became the owner of the immense estates of his family. He was educated at the University of Oxford, and studied law at the Inner Temple in London; he then retired to his estates and married the lady of his choice. He cared nothing for the pleasures of the king's court or of city life, but devoted himself to his books until the time came when his country had need of him.

John Hampden was hardly of age when his mother, proud of her son and ambitious for his advancement, urged him to seek from the king the rank of nobility. "If ever my son will seek for his honor," she wrote, "let him come now, for here is multitudes of lords amaking." It was true that at the court of the first Stuart king titles could be obtained by almost any one, but neither lordships nor baronetcies could be obtained without money; and Hampden, unwilling to pay for such empty honors, refused to take any steps towards acquiring a title.

Near the end of his reign King James summoned a Parliament, and Hampden took a seat in the House of Commons as the representative of the borough of Grampound. Here he

became associated with some of the future leaders of his people, John Pym, Oliver St. John, and Sir John Eliot. He was not a frequent speaker, but spent his time studying the conditions and needs of the country.

After a reign of twenty-two years King James died, and Charles I. succeeded him. When the king summoned his first Parliament, the Commons would not furnish supplies for carrying on the war with Spain. The king dismissed them suddenly, and then attempted to compel his wealthier subjects to lend him money, which really meant to give it to him. Hampden refused. When asked, "Why don't you lend as others do?" he replied, "I could be content to lend as well as others, but I fear to draw upon myself that curse in Magna Carta, which should be read twice a year, against those who infringe it." Hampden was arrested and brought before the Council. He refused to pay without a warrant of Parliament, and the Council did not dare to pursue the matter further.

Soon, however, the need of money compelled Charles to call a second Parliament, in which Hampden and Pym, St. John and Eliot were leaders. They forced the king to sign the "Petition of Right," which, among other things, declared illegal the raising of taxes without the consent of Parliament. Though the king signed the Petition of Right, it was soon evident that he had no intention of obeying it. When the leaders of Parliament accused him of playing false, he became enraged, imprisoned St. John and Eliot, dissolved Parliament, and determined if possible never to call another.

Hampden lived quietly once more at home; there seemed to be nothing that he could do for his country. Suddenly he became the most talked-of man in England. He had refused to pay the ship money. In earlier times the counties along the coast were frequently called on to furnish ships for their own defense, or, instead of ships, they were sometimes permitted to



give money. When King Charles learned of this old custom, he levied ship money not only upon the coast counties, but upon all the counties of England.

The amount assessed on John Hampden was less than twenty shillings. To pay such a sum was nothing to so rich a man as Hampden, but he was willing to sacrifice everything rather than principle; he declared the tax illegal, and refused to pay one penny. He was brought before the courts, and the king achieved a victory. The levying of ship money was declared legal, and Hampden paid his twenty shillings. But such

a victory was worse than a defeat, for the whole country was on Hampden's side, and the king was more hated than ever.



A GOLD COIN OF JAMES I.\*

For eleven years England

was governed without a Parliament. At last Charles found that forced loans, ship money, and other roundabout methods of obtaining revenue were absolutely insufficient to provide him with the funds he needed. Much against his will, he summoned a Parliament. One of its first acts was to punish Thomas Wentworth, the Earl of Strafford (Strä'furd), who entered Parliament at the same time as John Hampden. Like Hampden, Wentworth was a zealous reformer, and had suffered imprisonment

\* This coin, called the unite, commemorated the union of England and Scotland by the legend "King of Great Britain, France and Ireland" on one side and "I will make them one people" on the reverse. It was the first coin which bore the legend "Great Britain," instead of "England and Scotland."



for refusing to contribute to the forced loan. While Hampden became distinguished in Parliament for coolness and sagacity, Wentworth won renown for fire and eloquence; but unlike Hampden, Wentworth always did what seemed to him to be for his own interests. Charles determined to buy him over, and astonished the whole country by making him a baron.

“For what has he been ennobled?” asked Lord Powis.

“Because,” replied a friend, “he is descended from John of Gaunt, and has the blood royal in his veins.”

“The blood royal!” exclaimed Powis. “If he ever becomes king of England, I will turn rebel.”

A few days after Wentworth had become a peer he met one of his former companions in the House of Commons. “You see, Mr. Pym, I have left you.”

“Yes,” answered Pym, “I do perceive that you have left us; but we have no intention to leave you until we have the head off your shoulders.”

Thus was Wentworth hated when he entered the king's service. As he was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and Earl of Strafford, as day by day he gave the king advice how to make himself more absolute, as little by little he became the real ruler of the kingdom, the hatred of his opponents increased. Two lives could not show greater contrasts than those of Hampden and Strafford. Hampden always placed his country first, himself last; to Strafford his own interests were paramount.

Charles made demands of Parliament, and Parliament made demands of the king. A year and more passed; then one day the king sent the sergeant-of-arms to arrest five members of the House of Commons, Denzil Hollis, Arthur Hazlerig, William Strode, John Hampden, and John Pym. The House quietly sent back word that it would consider the matter, and the accused persons would be ready to answer any legal charge. The next day the king made a great mistake; he came in person

to the House of Commons, seated himself in the Speaker's chair, and demanded that the men be at once arrested. He looked about the room, but the five members were not there.

"Mr. Speaker," said the king, "are any of these persons in the House? Do you see any of them?"

"Your Majesty must excuse me," replied the Speaker, falling on his knees. "I am the servant of the House, and have neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak anything but as the House is pleased to direct."

"Well," returned Charles, "since I see the birds have flown, I expect that you will send them to me as soon as they return." Then taking his hat, he left the room.

The king's undignified act greatly injured his cause. London was on the side of his opponents in Parliament; and when, a few days later, the five members who had been in hiding returned, they were escorted by thirty or forty barges carrying guns and flags. But Charles did not hear the shouts of the multitude as they brought back their favorites. The day before, the king and his wife and friends had fled from London.

Nothing further could be done by either side without a resort to arms. Parliament took the first step and raised an army "for the safety of the king's person and the safety of the country." A month later the king rode out of Leicester to Castle Hill in Nottingham, and set up his standard. Once more civil war had begun in England. Two months later the armies met at Edgehill in the County of Essex, and for the first time since the battle of Bosworth, more than a hundred and fifty years before, a battle was fought on English soil. The two armies hesitated to approach each other, but when the battle once began, it was long and fierce. In fact, it was a drawn battle, and each side withdrew to repair damages and prepare for another engagement.

Hampden, though a good soldier, was a better statesman;

yet his work was about finished. In a skirmish at Chalgrove a bullet struck him in the shoulder. For six days he lived in great pain, but with all his thoughts devoted to the affairs of his country. His funeral was in charge of the Green-Coats whom he commanded. Doubtless, by his early death for the sake of



*From the painting by Lucas.*

A CAVALIER'S TALE OF THE BATTLE OF EDGEHILL.

liberty, John Hampden aided the cause more than if his life had been longer. The world has never seen a nobler example of an honest, true-hearted, whole-souled patriot than John Hampden.

Tell the story of Robert Carey.

State the reasons why James of Scotland was in the line of succession to the English throne.

Describe James's reception in England.

Show how the Stuarts lost the good-will of the people.

Give an account of the life of John Hampden: his ancestry; his contempt for empty honors; his refusal to lend money to Charles; his refusal to pay the ship money.

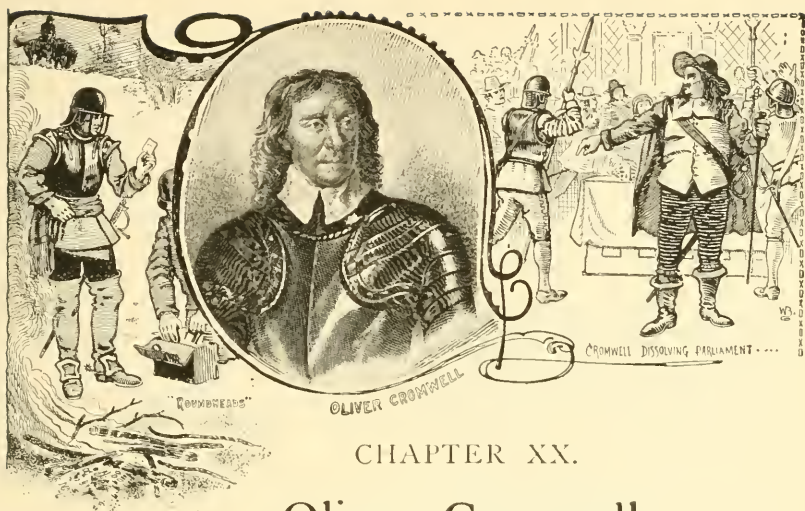
Contrast the characters of Hampden and Wentworth.

Tell the story of Charles's struggles with Parliament; his mistakes; the final results.

How was the prophecy concerning the Stone of Destiny fulfilled? What are the first seven great dates in English history? Why did not James start for England immediately after receiving the news of Elizabeth's death? Why were the English pleased to have a king? Are honors that do not come as rewards worth anything? How does the success of a bad cause often hurt it more than a defeat? Why did not Charles see the consequences of his high-handed proceedings? Hampden's refusal to obey the commands of the king helped to bring on civil war; how then was he a patriot? Is it true that a just war is better than an unjust peace?



SIGNATURE OF KING JAMES I.



## CHAPTER XX.

# Oliver Cromwell.

1599-1658.

OLIVER CROMWELL was five years younger than his cousin, John Hampden. He was a nephew of that Sir Oliver Cromwell who gave such hospitable welcome to James I. when he journeyed through England. The uncle thus expressed the kindly feelings of the people of England regarding the Stuart king in 1603; and forty years later the nephew was leading the people in their struggle against another Stuart king. Oliver was educated at Cambridge University, and studied law at Lincoln's Inn, London. He then returned to his country place, where he was chosen a member of Charles's third Parliament, the one in which his cousin became most prominent.

John Hampden was a handsome man of refined tastes and exquisite manner. Oliver Cromwell was a great contrast to his cousin. One of the courtiers of the day describes him as he first saw him: "I came into the House one morning and perceived a gentleman speaking whom I knew not, very ordinarily

appareled, for it was a plain cloth suit which seemed to be made by an ill country tailor. His linen was plain and not very clean and I remember a spot or two of blood upon his little band, which was not much larger than his collar. His hat was without a hatband. His stature was of a good size; his sword stuck close to his side; his countenance was swollen and reddish; his voice sharp and untunable, and his eloquence full of fervor."

Parliament was dissolved too soon for Cromwell to make any mark, and did not meet again for eleven years. During this period he had not changed his manner or his style of dress; but behind these outward peculiarities was a depth of ability known only to his friends.

"Who is that sloven who has spoken so warmly to-day?" asked the aged Earl of Derby, who had been one of Queen Elizabeth's courtiers fifty years before.

Hampden replied, "That sloven is named Oliver Cromwell, my lord, and if we come to a break with the king—which God forbid!—that sloven will be the greatest man in England."

The quarrel between the king and Parliament came on. Parliament raised an army, and many members took commissions and set to work to form regiments. Among the most energetic were Colonels Hampden and Cromwell. Hampden soon brought together a fine regiment of foot soldiers made up of his tenants and neighbors. Cromwell was not so wealthy as his cousin, nor did he have so great influence in his neighborhood, but he was a man of strong religious feelings, and his soldiers were honest, sturdy, independent yeomen, "men of religion." In Cromwell's own words, "no blasphemy, drinking, disorder, or impiety are suffered in the ranks. Not a man swears but pays twelve pence." Such were Cromwell's "Ironsides."

The battle of Edgehill greatly raised the hopes of the king and the Cavaliers (Kāv-a-lērs'), as the king's followers were



called, and the death of Hampden was a severe blow to the Parliamentary forces. The Cavaliers, taking advantage of the temporary weakness of their opponents, attacked Gloucester, the only western city which the king did not hold. The army appeared before the city, and two heralds were sent to call the garrison to surrender. The answer was brought by two men whose lean, sharp countenances caused much merriment.

"We have come," said they, "with an answer from the godly city of Gloucester to the king."

"Well, what is your answer?" asked the Cavaliers laughing.

"It is this," replied the Roundheads, for such was the nickname given to the Parliamentary forces because of their close-cut hair. "We, the inhabitants, magistrates, officers, and soldiers within the garrison of Gloucester, unto his majesty's gracious message return this humble answer: That we do keep this city according to our oaths and allegiance to and for the use of his majesty and his royal posterity, and conceiving ourselves wholly bound to obey the commands of his majesty, signified by both houses of Parliament, we are resolved with God's help to keep the city accordingly." And keep the city they did, until the Earl of Essex, captain-general of the Parliamentary army, arrived and drove the royal forces away.

This success at Gloucester was followed by a drawn battle at Newbury. Had the conduct of the war been left perpetually



CHARLES I.

to Essex and the original higher officers of the Parliamentary army, it might have continued indefinitely. But while the drawn battles, slow marches, and perpetual sieges were taking



*From the painting by Van Dyck.*

THE CHILDREN OF CHARLES I.

Who became Charles II., James II., and Mary, the mother of William III.

place in the west of England, Lord Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell were winning important battles in the east and the north.

The turning point of the war came when a quarrel arose in Parliament over matters of religion. A large portion of the members were opposed to the Church of England. The major-

ity preferred the Scottish form of worship, and were called Presbyterians; while a minority, led by Oliver Cromwell, Oliver St. John, and Sir Harry Vane, called themselves Independents, because they believed that each congregation should manage all its church affairs for itself. The quarrel in the House of Commons between the Presbyterians and the Independents became very bitter. The Independents felt that their own earnestness was not shared by the Presbyterians, and that without such earnestness the war could never be ended. They succeeded in passing the so-called "self-denying ordinance," forbidding any officer of the army to be at the same time a member of Parliament. Essex and his fellow-officers resigned from the army, and Fairfax was made general, with Cromwell next in command. They, with many other officers, resigned from Parliament.

The effect of the "new model," as it was called, was soon seen. After a few months spent in drilling and reorganizing, Fairfax met the royal forces at the village of Naseby (Nāz'bi). The fiercest battle of the war followed. The Cavaliers fought with a valor worthy of the best of causes, but they could not withstand Cromwell's Ironsides. Through the whole battle Charles fought like a hero. His infantry presented an unbroken front to the very end, but the artillery was captured and turned against them.

"We are lost," they cried.

"Not yet," replied Charles; "one more charge and we will yet recover the day."

"Would you rush upon your death?" asked the Earl of Carnworth, laying his hand upon the king's bridle and turning his horse's head in the opposite direction. Charles fled to the royal town of Oxford, where he spent a year, doubtless the most unhappy year of his life. One by one castles and cities were captured; Fairfax and Cromwell approached as near as

Newcastle, and the king decided to flee. He cut off his hair, disguised himself as a servant, and with two attendants left Oxford at night. He succeeded in passing through the lines of the Parliamentary army, and wandered about until he reached Newark, where he surrendered himself to the Scottish army. Its commander, the Earl of Leven, immediately informed Parliament that the king had taken refuge with him. Parliament offered to pay the Scots two hundred thousand pounds if they would deliver the king to them, and the offer was accepted. When Charles heard of this transaction, he said quietly, "I am bought and sold." No honor was acquired by either party in this buying and selling of a king.

After being held in one castle after another in constant fear of assassination, Charles fled to the Isle of Wight, where he hoped that the governor would be friendly. Though a royalist, the governor was the son-in-law of Hampden, and therefore connected with Cromwell, so he did not dare to assist the king. After a year of captivity on the island, the king was carried to Windsor Castle, soon to meet a trial for treason.

While Charles was on the Isle of Wight, he had entered into a secret treaty with the Scots, promising to establish the Presbyterian Church in England if they would assist in restoring him to the throne. The Scots marched into England, and the royalists arose to support them. When the Independent leaders heard of the treaty, they declared that they would bring the king to justice. Naturally the Presbyterians were opposed to any such action, and they were in the majority in Parliament. Fairfax and his army marched to London, and one morning Colonel Pride surrounded the House of Parliament and arrested the members who were opposed to the Independents, seizing them one by one as they came from the session. This action, which has been called "Pride's Purge," reduced the membership of the House of Commons to about fifty. The Parliament

thus formed has been named "The Rump," and all its members were not only intensely hostile to King Charles, but opposed to all kings and kingdoms. Cromwell was not present, but he afterward approved the action of Colonel Pride.

The Rump Parliament passed an ordinance to bring King Charles to trial. The king was brought into Westminster Hall into the presence of the judges, who, clothed in scarlet, sat on benches rising one above the other. As he was led in front of the chief justice, Charles paid no respect to the court, not even removing his hat. He gave the judges a stern glance, and they, also wearing their hats, steadfastly returned his look. Charles seated himself and looked about the hall; on all sides were soldiers—in every window and every door—and in the rear was a dense throng of people.

Day after day the trial continued, and when a week had passed, Charles realized that the sentence would be death. He rose and asked the court that he might be heard, saying, "I am sure that what I have to say is well worth hearing." It is probable that Charles would have abdicated in favor of his son, but the judges would not permit him to speak. Bradshaw, the chief justice, said at the conclusion of a long speech, "Sir, that which we are now upon is to try and judge you for your great offenses. This charge has called you tyrant, traitor, murderer,—it would have been well if any of these might have been spared. The sentence which the law now affirms, you are now to hear. Make silence! Read the sentence!"

The clerk read: "Charles Stuart, as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of this nation, shall be put to death by severing of his head from his body."

Three days later the sentence was carried out in the presence of an immense multitude. The beheading of a king by order of his subjects was new in the history of the world. "Was there something divine in the right of kings?" "What a terrible



thing to behead the ruler of the nation!" So thought the people, and a deep groan went through the crowd. Nowhere was any joy shown, and no shout of approval was heard; the crowd was sullen, and ready for any deed of vengeance. A company of cavalry galloped in from one side, another body of troops from the other, and in a few moments the multitudes were dispersed.

What next? England had no king, or was Prince Charles king? The Rump Parliament immediately passed an act prohibiting the proclaiming of any person king of England. It dissolved the House of Lords, declared England a republic, under the name of "the Commonwealth," and appointed a council of state of which Justice Bradshaw was president, the poet Milton foreign secretary, and Fairfax commander of the army. Fairfax soon resigned, and Cromwell was made commander-in-chief.

The new republic had its difficulties. The king's death had increased the number of the Royalists; the Presbyterians hated the Rump Parliament and the army; fanatics among the Independents themselves caused trouble. War broke out in Ireland, where the Royalists proclaimed Prince Charles king. Cromwell put down this rebellion quickly and thoroughly. In Scotland Charles himself was routed, and a year later he was defeated so decisively that he never tried again.

Cromwell learned that Parliament was preparing for another election, with the provision that all the members of the Rump Parliament should be members of the new House. The army believed that this was for the purpose of keeping the Rump perpetually in power, though doubtless the idea of Parliament was to protect itself from Cromwell as a military dictator. On the day when the vote was to be taken, Cromwell entered the House, made a speech charging the Commons with injustice and misgovernment, and ended by saying, "You are no Parliament. I say you are no Parliament!" Calling in his soldiers,



he drove every member from the room, locked the door, and put the key in his pocket.

Cromwell summoned a new Parliament, which has been called "Barebone's Parliament," from the name of one of its members, Praise-God Barebone. This Parliament made Cromwell Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland. A later



*From the painting by Maguire.*

CROMWELL REFUSING THE CROWN OF ENGLAND.

Parliament offered him the crown, which he refused, but for five years he had practically absolute power. He made a good ruler, yet he was a tyrant, for he had no legal right to his position. Though an Independent, he permitted all forms of worship. In foreign affairs he proved himself a great statesman, and England was more respected abroad under Cromwell than under Charles. British ships won every battle in which they were engaged, and commerce increased with great rapidity.

After five years in power Oliver Cromwell died, and was succeeded by his son Richard. Eight months later Richard was glad to resign at the request of the army. General Monk, commanding the army in Scotland, came to London determined that England should have a fair, complete Parliament. The Rump met again, called back to its membership those who had been driven out by Pride's Purge, and summoned a new Parliament to be elected as previous Parliaments had been. Prince Charles was invited to take the throne, and once more England had a king, Charles II.

The work of Hampden, Cromwell, and other reformers had apparently failed. Everybody strove to carry out the wishes of the new king, and for a time his power was absolute. His father, though a poor statesman, was a good man, while Charles II. was not only a poor statesman, but he was a bad man. Little by little he lost the good-will of the people as did his father and grandfather, but his reign of twenty-five years was a period of peace and prosperity. His brother James, who succeeded him as king, was unpopular for the same reasons as Charles II., and, besides, he was a Roman Catholic. The religious fears of the people were aroused. In three years James was driven from the throne and the country, and his daughter Mary and her husband, William of Orange, were elected queen and king. The reign of William and Mary began in 1689. This is the eighth great date in English history—the final establishment of Parliamentary control of the government.

The revolution of 1689 was accomplished without bloodshed; there was no excitement, no disturbance. The time had come. John Hampden's work for English liberties was accomplished. Fifty years and more had passed since he refused to pay the ship money, and during that half century the English people had come to accept his ideas. He started the movement, and though it was slow and had its ups and downs, it was neverthe-

less sure and finally successful. From the day of the coronation of William and Mary, England has had a government which, through Parliament, has been a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people."

Describe the personal appearance of Oliver Cromwell; of his Ironsides.

Tell the story of the siege of Gloucester; the "new model"; the battle of Naseby; Pride's Purge.

Give an account of the flight of Charles I.; his capture; his trial; his death.

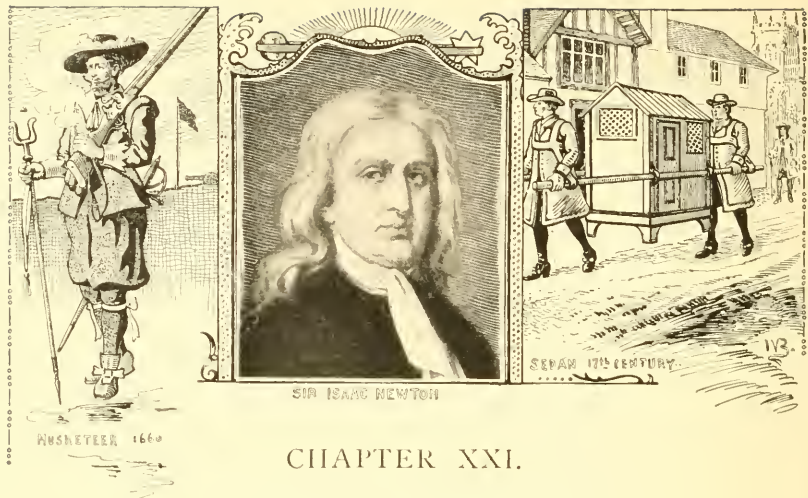
Describe how Cromwell took possession of the government; his ability as a ruler.

What was the cause of the revolution?

Why did Cromwell's Ironsides make such good soldiers? What kind of a war is the most fiercely fought? What was the necessity for the "self-denying ordinance"? How were the proceedings of the Independents different from Charles's attempts to rule without Parliament? Did the people have any more control of the government under Cromwell's rule? Was Charles's trial in accord with Magna Carta? Why did the king's death increase the number of royalists? If Cromwell was a tyrant, how was he better than Charles? What are the first eight great dates in English history?



THE COMMONWEALTH FLAG.



## CHAPTER XXI.

# Isaac Newton.

1642-1727.

THE England of Cromwell was not the "Merrie England" of Queen Elizabeth. The Puritans had seen so much that was evil in the merrymakings and the extravagances of the times that, when they controlled the government, they changed many of the old customs. It was fitting that the inhabitants of a "kingdom of God," as they hoped England would be, should live soberly. Therefore theaters were closed, sports were abolished, and the holiday amusements stopped. The people dressed in plainer clothes and lived frugally. The Puritans failed to see that "all work and no play" was good for no one, and that in the effort to root out evils many innocent amusements and pleasures were taken away from the people. They grew restive because of the dullness of their daily life, and when Charles II. came to the throne, the nation went to the other extreme. It is always true that, if a pendulum is swung too far in one direction, it will surely swing as far to the other side. Frivolity

and pleasure became the fashion of the day. Society became hard and brazen, with little care for modesty in word or act. Young men went about at night amusing themselves by doing all the mischief they could; dueling was common, and even peaceable folk had to go armed.

Early in the reign of Charles II. a plague broke out in London. Defoe wrote in his Journal:

“ A dreadful plague in London was in the year sixty-five,  
Which swept a hundred thousand souls away—yet I alive.”

The strong died as well as the weak, and for a time it seemed as though no one would escape. “ Indeed, good people began to think that God was resolved to make a full end of the people in this miserable city.” Finally, by shutting up houses and streets the authorities were able to check the spread of the disease, though much complaint was made of their “ very cruel and unchristian method.”

The plague was followed by a great fire which destroyed nearly the whole of London. It broke out in a bakeshop in a “ little pitiful lane ” in the dirtiest and most crowded part of the city. The summer had been very dry, water was scarce, and near by were buildings filled with tar, pitch, wines, and hemp. The fire was soon beyond control, and by the end of the third day “ there is nothing but stones and rubbish. So that you can see almost from one end of the city to the other, and you can compare London, were it not for the rubbish, to nothing more than an open field.”

The fire really was a great blessing, for it destroyed the narrow lanes and streets filled with the dirt of centuries. Never had a city a better opportunity to improve its condition. They started out to rebuild on a systematized plan, but people did not realize then the importance of wide streets and breath-



ing places; they grew tired of the delay, and the city was built up hurriedly with the streets narrow and crooked as of old, without sewers and gutters. If carriages had been common, wider streets would have been thought a necessity, but people



*From the painting by Hannah.*

DR. HARVEY DEMONSTRATING THE CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD TO CHARLES I.

still went about largely on horseback or in sedan chairs. These chairs were supported by long poles held by two carriers, one in front and one behind. The streets were unlighted, and it was customary for people who were out at night to hire boys with lanterns to light the way.



Though England seemed to go backward in some ways, she made great advances in other directions. Thoughtful men were beginning to study into the reasons for things, and knowledge took the place of guesswork. Even the pleasure-loving Charles had his laboratory, and members of the court followed his example. A society for the discussion of scientific questions was formed, and through its influence old ideas were shown to be false. An important discovery that had changed the practice of medicine had previously been made by Dr. William Harvey. The old-time physicians knew that the body contained veins and arteries and that the blood did not remain stagnant, but they supposed that the blood was carried from the heart to different parts of the body by the veins; that the arteries were filled by some other substance—either air or spirits, or a combination of the two; and that the beating of the heart was caused by the expansion of the spirits it contained. No one realized that a continuous flow went from the heart out through the arteries and returned by the veins to the lungs, where it was purified and sent out once more by the heart to all parts of the body. This important truth was discovered by Dr. Harvey.

No one of all the thoughtful and learned men of this period surpassed Isaac Newton in making use of his knowledge. Newton's discoveries revolutionized the whole world of thought and science. Alexander Pope has well said:

“ Nature and nature's laws lay hid in night;  
God said, ‘ Let Newton be ! ’ and all was light.”

Yet it is true that no one man ever invents or discovers anything from beginning to end alone. One searcher finds out one truth; another, making use of that, adds a second; another, influenced by these two, finds a third; and so on, until at last comes a man who brings together all these many bits of facts into a perfect machine or thought.

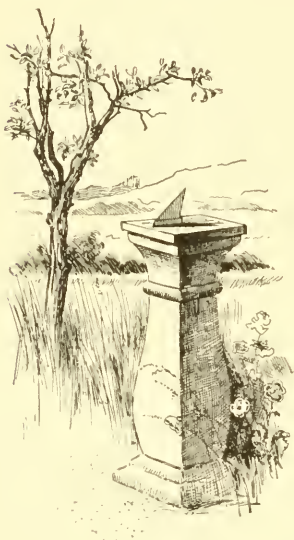
As a boy, Isaac Newton showed no great ability. He always stood at the foot of his class, until one day the next boy above kicked him. Having beaten this boy in a fight, Isaac determined to surpass him also in his studies, and he soon stood not only above him, but above all others in his class. In his spare moments Newton showed himself different from other boys;

instead of spending his holidays in fishing and rough, boyish games, he hammered away at all kinds of mechanical toys in his room over the apothecary shop. Probably some of these toys were better appreciated by the boys for whom they were made than by his elders. He taught his schoolmates how to make and fly paper kites, which were frequently sent up after dark with lighted paper lanterns attached. The country people thought these were comets and were greatly frightened; for if one comet in the sky foretold disaster, what terrible events must follow the appearance of several comets!

Having watched the construction of a windmill near the school, New-

ton made one himself. His little model was a perfect success when there was sufficient wind to keep it in motion. He was not satisfied with it, however, and fitted up an arrangement whereby a mouse, by continually running up a treadmill, could turn the sails at all times

By carefully observing the movements of shadows, he made sun-dials, so that "anybody knew by Isaac's dial what o'clock it was." For the amusement of his girl friends, he invented a



A SUN-DIAL.

carriage that could be moved by a handle; this worked well on a smooth floor, but was not successful on a rough road. Even Newton's genius could not produce an automobile!

His mother was not wealthy, and she took him from school to make a farmer of him; but he became a very poor farmer, as even his mother was forced to acknowledge. Sheep and cattle, and the raising and selling of produce, had not half the attraction of a hammer and a saw. The brook was obeying his will, while the cattle went astray, and his old servant bought the family supplies while he read a book. Mrs. Newton ceased begging and commanding, and sent him off to college at Cambridge, where he was in his proper place. Though his preparation for college had been less than that of most of his fellow-students, he soon surpassed them all in mathematics and science. Before he was graduated he corrected many errors in the old sciences, and after graduation he was appointed Professor of Mathematics. When not engaged in teaching, he spent his time experimenting. "He was hardly ever alone without a pen in his hand or a book before him," and when he became tired from one deep study, he rested by taking up another equally difficult. He knew that only by patient, hard work and study can one accomplish anything really worth while.

Newton was so busily occupied with his work that he paid little heed to outside happenings. Many amusing stories are told of his absent-mindedness. He would forget to dress in the morning; he would not remember to go to his meals. It is said, though the story may not be true, that one day an intimate friend was invited to dine with him; the dinner was served, but still Newton did not appear. At last the friend grew too hungry to wait longer, so he sat down at the table and began to eat a chicken, the bones of which he carefully replaced under the cover of the dish. When Newton came in, he removed the cover, and said, as he looked at the bones, "How

absent-minded we philosophers are ! I really thought I had not dined."

The old theory about colors was that every object in nature had its own color: that a red flower was red because it was red; that the grass was green because it was green; that the sky was blue because it was blue, and that the sea was blue because the white salt had become mixed with the black water. Every one knows now that water has no color of itself, but appears blue, green, or gray because of the variations in its depth or because of the color of the sky. Newton discovered that the grass is green because it reflects back to the eye only the green rays of the sunlight and absorbs all the other colors. The whole world was against Newton and his theory. Fortunately the time was passed when he could be burned or imprisoned for declaring such strange doctrines; but his critics made his life so uncomfortable that if he had been a lesser man he would have been forced to give up all further research. "I see," he said, "a man must either resolve to find out nothing new, or to become a slave to defend it."

Since the world began, all peoples have been interested in the study of the heavens. By the regular returning of the moon the ancients kept account of time; by the stars the traveler found his way over the desert or the sea. When certain constellations appeared above the eastern horizon, the farmer knew it was time to sow his grain; after many moons other arrangements of stars came in sight, and he knew it was time to harvest. Wise men attempted to study out the laws that kept the stars in their places; they had no help but the eye, and their results were mere imaginings and guesswork. The Greeks thought that the sun was a torch and the stars were candles. Other peoples had different ideas, but all believed that the earth was stationary and the center of the universe.

In time, people came to believe that events were foretold by

the appearance of the heavens ; that meteors, comets, and eclipses meant misfortune, and that the whole history of men and of nations was shown by the stars. Astronomy was used for no other purpose than to forecast events, and men made fame and fortune by imposing upon the people. Kings and princes were as superstitious as the poorest beggars. Even at the present



*From the painting by De Louthembourg.*

#### THE GREAT FIRE OF LONDON.

time, persons can be found who are terrified by a strange appearance of the sky or an unusually bright star.

Copernicus (Ko-per'-nĭ-kŭs), a Prussian, discovered that all the heavenly bodies do not revolve about the earth ; but it was left for Galileo (Gāl-ĭ-lee'-o) to make this fact known to the world. He first made use of the telescope, and with it discovered new stars and wonders in the heavens, all of which strengthened his

belief that the earth was not the center of the universe. The Pope, however, considered these theories heretical. Galileo was summoned to the Vatican, and was compelled to confess that he was wrong.

Newton spent considerable time improving the imperfect telescope of his day; still, this important work was not his greatest service to astronomers. Though the theories of Copernicus and Galileo were now universally admitted to be correct, none knew how the suns and the planets were kept in their places. It was left for Newton to discover this, the most wonderful law in all science,—the Law of Gravitation. The same power that draws to the ground a stone thrown into the air, affects every object, every particle of matter in the universe. Because every heavenly body draws



THE ROYAL OBSERVATORY AT GREENWICH.

every other heavenly body toward it in proportion to its weight and distance, all the bodies, and our earth with them, are held in their places. Difficult as this may be to understand, it is a much more satisfactory explanation than the old idea that the earth rested on the back of an elephant and the elephant stood on the backs of four tortoises.



For years Newton worked in poverty and discouragement. He found the reasons for the tides of the sea; he learned the paths of the comets; he studied mathematical and theological problems. The work of years was once destroyed by his little dog upsetting a lighted candle on his desk. With great patience Newton sadly said, "O Diamond, Diamond, little do you know the mischief you have done me!" He was sick and alone, but at last came wealth and honors. He was appointed Master of the Mint, did valuable service for the government, and received a satisfactory income. He was knighted by Queen Anne, and was for twenty-five years the president of the Royal Society. His generosity was unbounded. One of his friends has said that "no man in his circumstances ever gave away so much during his lifetime." Newton believed that "they who give nothing till they die, never give at all."

With all his knowledge and with all his honors, Sir Isaac Newton, who "surpassed all men in genius," was a modest man. He did not like the applause that was deservedly paid him, for the very greatness of his knowledge made him humble. Just before his death he said, "I do not know what I may appear to the world; but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the seashore and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble or a prettier shell than ordinary, while the great ocean of truth lay undiscovered before me." How few can say that they have even picked up pebbles!

Describe the changes in England when Charles II. became king.

Tell the story of the plague; the great fire; how London was rebuilt.

Give an account of the old ideas about the circulation of the blood and Harvey's discovery; the theories about the stars and the earth.

Tell the story of Newton's life: as a schoolboy; as a farmer; as a student.

Tell about his discovery of the laws of color and of gravitation; his generosity.

Who were the Puritans, and why were they so called? What great

mistake did the Puritans make? How did it happen that all at once so many men turned their attention to science? Can coming events be foretold from the heavens? Why were astrologers so successful in imposing upon the people? Would you say that Newton was a bad boy because he did not better attend to his duties? Why was it that the people were so easily satisfied with the old theories? Why was the Pope disturbed by Galileo's discoveries?



THE BIRTH-PLACE OF NEWTON.



## CHAPTER XXII.

# Lord Chatham.

1708-1778.

THE eighteenth century began during the reign of William and Mary. The next hundred years were a period of steady growth in prosperity ; England improved, became more and more civilized, and the people had more comforts and happinesses. At times during the century, matters of great political importance came before the country. The coming of a new family to the throne made many changes. After Mary died, King William reigned alone until his death, and he was succeeded by Mary's sister, Anne, who, after a reign of twelve years, died, leaving no children. It was not clear who should succeed her. A younger son of James II., called "The Pretender," was a Catholic, and would not change his religion for a throne. The nearest Protestant heir was George, Duke of Hanover, grandson of a sister of Charles I. Parliament proclaimed this German prince King George I. of England. The Pretender immediately started a

revolution, and thirty years later his son, the Young Pretender, made another attempt to restore the Stuarts to the throne, but both failed, and the family of Hanover has continued to rule England to the present day.

For the sixth time in English history a foreign family ruled England: Saxon, Danish, Norman, French, and Scotch kings had followed one another, and now came a German. In most of these cases the new kings were descended from the reigning family of England, but they had been born and bred upon foreign soil; they were accustomed to a way of life unlike that of England; they did not understand English forms of government; they did not comprehend the power of the English yeoman. Therefore they frequently got into trouble and met with more perplexities than would have vexed an English-born ruler. George of Hanover was the most non-English of all the foreign kings. He loved his native country, as did his son George II., who succeeded him. He could not speak one word of English, and the government was left to a cabinet composed of the leading men of one or the other of the two great parties. From that time to the present, the political history of England has been of parties, cabinets, and prime ministers, rather than of kings.

The two parties that sprang up after the accession of William and Mary were for more than a century called Tory and Whig. The Tories have always followed a conservative policy, and are now known as Conservatives: they prefer to make changes very slowly and to continue the existing order of things as long as possible. The Whigs, now called Liberals, have been willing to make any change in the government that seemed best, and have upheld the people when their interests were opposed to those of the king. At one time the Whigs were in power and the king was surrounded by Whig advisers. At other times, when the Tories were more popular, the government was in the hands of a Tory cabinet and a Tory prime minister.

One of the most noted of these party leaders was William Pitt, better known as the Earl of Chatham (Chât'am), to distinguish him from his son William Pitt, who also became prime minister. The Pitt family first became prominent in the times of the grandfather of William Pitt, who, while governor of Madras (Ma-dräs'), bought of a native Indian prince a diamond of great beauty, the largest at that time known. He carried it in safety to Europe in a cavity hollowed out in his high-heeled shoe, and sold it for more than six times the price paid, a sum sufficient to bring the family great wealth.

William was a younger son and, as he could not inherit the family wealth, it was necessary for him to choose a profession. A position as Cornet of Horse in the army was obtained for him and he entered upon his duties with great enthusiasm. It is said that he read through every military book written. When only twenty-seven years old, he was chosen a member of the House of Commons, and he soon became the leader of the younger Whigs, called by the prime minister "the boys." At first Walpole, the prime minister, despised them because of their youth and laughed at their high ideals, saying that when they grew older they would learn that they must take the world as it is, and not as it ought to be. But he soon saw that some of them had great ability and that their views could not be set aside with a laugh. Pitt was so especially prominent in his opposition to Walpole that his army commission was taken from him. "At all events," said the prime minister,



A CORNET OF HORSE.

"we must muzzle that terrible Cornet of Horse." Pitt was a poor man, and Walpole doubtless thought that this disgrace would compel him to give up politics; but, instead, it made him a hero with the people, and in twenty years he held the highest office in the land.

Some verses by Lord Lyttleton show that Pitt's ability was appreciated by his friends. He wrote:

"Long had thy virtues marked thee out for fame,  
Far, far superior to a Cornet's name;  
This gen'rous Walpole saw, and grieved to find  
So mean a post disgraced that noble mind.  
The servile standard from thy freeborn hand  
He took, and bade thee *lead the patriot's band.*"

Pitt now put all his talents, all his energy, into political life. He soon proved that there is always "room enough for him who can reach over and above the heads of the crowd." He was a wonderful orator; before his stinging words and flashing eyes his most powerful enemies shrank and trembled. He learned that the common folk, not the dukes and lords, but the great middle class of the people, held the real power in England. His absolute honesty gained the confidence of the merchants, and his love of country gave him the admiration and affection of the masses.

Pitt set himself against the giving and taking of bribes in a time when the majority of English statesmen saw no wrong in this practice. Most of them believed with Walpole that "every man has his price"; that any man would perform any service if a sufficient sum of money or a coveted position was given him. Others tried to get the most they could out of their positions for their private advantage; but Pitt ever refused to use the government's money for himself. One prominent statesman once wrote to his brother, "I think him [Mr. Pitt] the most able and



useful man we have among us; truly honorable and strictly honest."

It was the custom of Parliament to pay the king of Sardinia yearly a sum of money to keep him from joining England's enemies; it was also the custom for the "Paymaster of the Forces" to take out a certain part of this money for his own use. Pitt, when he was paymaster, gave over the full amount. The king was so delighted with his honesty that he offered as a gift the same sum that Pitt would have received if he had followed the usual custom. Even the gift was refused. Pitt said that Parliament voted the money for one purpose, and he had no right to use any part of it for another.

An incident that happened many years afterwards also shows Pitt's honesty and his unwillingness to be turned from his duty by threats or bribes. Lord Falmouth, a famous naval officer, came to Pitt and asked to be recommended to the king when the next vacancy occurred in the Order of the Garter. Now the members of the Order of the Garter, so called because of its badge of a band or garter worn about the leg or arm, held the highest rank among the English knights, and Pitt, though he had a great admiration for Lord Falmouth, did not think him worthy of this high honor.

On Pitt's refusal to make this request of the king, Falmouth said, "You will be pleased, Sir, to remember that I bring in



A KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF THE  
GARTER.

five votes who will go with the ministry in the House of Commons."

"Your Lordship threatens me!" cried Pitt. "You may therefore be assured that so long as I hold a place in the councils of the crown, you shall never receive the Order of the Garter."



TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS IN  
AMERICA.

About the middle of the eighteenth century war broke out between England and France for the possession of land in America. Each country had colonies in the new land, and the English in America had no greater love for their French neighbors than had the mother country for her neighbor across the Channel. The English colonies had always claimed the whole land from the Atlantic to the Pacific, but the settlers were too few at first to pay much attention to the vast stretches of country beyond the Alleghany Mountains. The land along the Atlantic coast was for a long while wide enough for all who came from England; but as time went on, trappers and hunters began to push across

the Blue Ridge, only to find that the land was already occupied. Mere scattered settlements were there to be sure, but these were inhabited by their old foes, the Frenchmen.

The French had a flourishing colony in Canada and a settlement at New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi. They also claimed the land between these two colonies, and built a chain of forts reaching from the Gulf of Mexico to the Gulf of

the St. Lawrence. Each nationality resented the presence of the other in the disputed territory. The parent nations naturally upheld their children, and war broke out not only in America, but in Europe as well.

English affairs were badly managed. The men in control of the government were incompetent; the generals were appointed because of family or influence; battles were lost, and the people became discouraged. No one wanted to enter the army or navy, and no banker was willing to lend money for the support of the war. All felt as did Lord Chesterfield, who declared: "The French are masters to do what they please in America. We are no longer a nation. I never yet saw so dreadful a prospect."

At this time Pitt became prime minister. He entered upon his office with the determination to arouse England from her stupor. He thoroughly believed in her powers, and it was not long before England believed in herself. The whole conduct of the war was changed; generals were appointed not because they had family and influence, but because they had ability. The victory of Wolfe at Quebec brought to an end the French power in America, and by the treaty of peace the English were given undisputed authority from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River.

"These," said Horace Walpole, "are the doings of Mr. Pitt, and they are wondrous in our eyes."

"Time was when it was praise and boast enough  
In every clime, and travel where we might,  
That we were born her children; praise enough  
To fill the ambition of a private man,  
That Chatham's language was his mother tongue,  
And Wolfe's great name compatriot with his own."

But again the times changed. A new king, George III., came to the throne, and he was a man in every respect different from his grandfather, George II. He had been brought up on

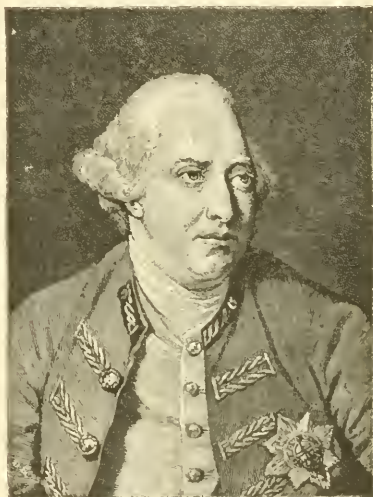
English soil, and though he had no great ability, he was not content to be a figure head. "Be king, George, be king," his mother had continually said to him, and king in more than name he determined to be. The king hated his minister, probably because he saw that Pitt was a greater man than himself; he would not uphold his plans, and Pitt, even before the end of the war, was obliged to resign. The French were delighted, for they considered that Pitt's fall was of more value to them than "the winning of two battles."

Pitt soon afterwards became minister again, but he did not hold office long. The king later made him Lord Chatham, a rank which gave him a seat in the House of Lords. It is thought that the king did not intend to honor him so much as to make him lose his popularity among the people. A leader from the ranks of the common people always lost his influence when he was willing to accept a peerage. The mobs who, only a few years before, were thronging about Pitt's carriage and even "kissing his horses," now greeted him with howls of abuse; they forgot all the good that he had done; their love suddenly turned to hate. If the king had hoped for this, he surely had his desire.

King George's stubbornness soon brought England into a contest with the American colonies. The war with the French had been an expensive one and had been mostly for the benefit of the colonies, who were not numerous enough or rich enough to carry on the war alone. England had freely given money and men, and now George and certain of his advisers thought that it was only fair for the colonies to pay back some of that which had been spent for them. But Parliament should have asked the colonies for it instead of taxing them. The English in America had been a long time absent from the mother country; they had been far removed from the court, and freedom had strengthened their love of liberty and weakened their belief in the rights of kings and lords. They had grown independent in thought, and speech, and government.

To be sure, their governors were appointed in England and all their trade had to be carried on with England, but each colony made its own laws, and voted how and where its money should be used. They resented that a Parliament across the sea, a Parliament in which they had no representatives and no votes, should make them pay taxes.

Pitt and the wisest of the English statesmen saw that trouble would follow if George persisted in his plans, but the king was either too blind or too stubborn to change them. A Stamp Act was passed which compelled the colonists to use stamped paper for all legal matters. If a man made a will, he must pay for the stamp on the paper on which the will was written; if he sold a house, he must buy a stamp for the deed. All this extra money went to the English government. It was only a little for this colonist and a little for his neighbor; it was not the size of the tax that made them rebel. The question in their minds was, "Who has the right to tax us?"



GEORGE III.

Such a commotion was caused in the colonies that Parliament was compelled to repeal the Stamp Act. Still George did not give up his theory that England had the right to tax, and duties were placed upon many imported articles that the colonists could not produce in America. The colonists either went without or else found something to take their place, until at last all duties



were removed except that on teas. Surely the Americans would not give up their tea!

By this time all the colonies had become thoroughly aroused. "No taxation without representation" became the cry from Maine to Georgia. The people refused to drink tea; and the



AMERICAN COLONISTS BURNING THE STAMP SELLER IN EFFIGY.

cargoes were either returned to England, or, as in Boston, thrown into the harbor. Each side had gone too far to become reconciled, and war followed.

It was an unequal contest. On one side was the mother country, rich and powerful; on the other were the American colonies, poor, jealous of one another, and widely scattered. What hope of success could they have? The result might perhaps have been



different if France had not come to their help. She sent her men and ships, not altogether for love of America, but because she hated England and was glad to use every opportunity to do her all the harm she could. When peace was declared, England had lost her colonies, and the United States was a free and independent country. Henceforth, there were two great English-speaking nations.

Pitt, or Chatham, as he was then called, followed every event with great interest, though worn out, not from age, but from sickness and suffering. When the news came that France had taken the American side, England was terrified and many urged that peace be made at any price. Pitt would not allow his beloved England to be disgraced. Still the friend of America, and still grieving that Englishmen should be at war with Englishmen, he nevertheless was unwilling that England should be frightened by France. He was carried from his sick bed to the House of Lords, wrapped in flannels and unable to walk without crutches.

"I thank God," he said, "that I have been enabled to perform my duty. I am old and infirm, have one foot in the grave. I have risen from my bed to stand up in the cause of my country, perhaps never again to speak in this House."

To his passionate address the prime minister replied. When the answer was finished, Pitt tried to stand again, but his strength failed; he fell to the floor and was carried home to die.

Thus at his post fell one of the greatest of the English statesmen. He had many faults, he made many mistakes; but his love of country, his unselfishness, and his virtues, raised him high above the other statesmen of his time and make him a worthy example for the youth of every land.

State the reasons why the Pretender should not succeed his sister.

Tell some of the difficulties that came to the foreign kings.

Describe the difference between the Tories and the Whigs.

Tell the story of the life of Lord Chatham; as Cornet of Horse, as

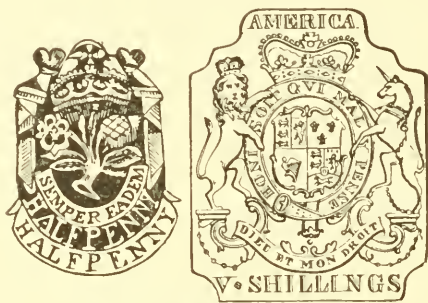
member of Parliament, as paymaster; his ability as an orator; his honesty.

Give an account of the troubles in America with France, with the colonies.

Show what were the conditions in England during the early part of the French war; how Pitt changed the whole conduct of the war; how the people of England regarded the war with the colonies.

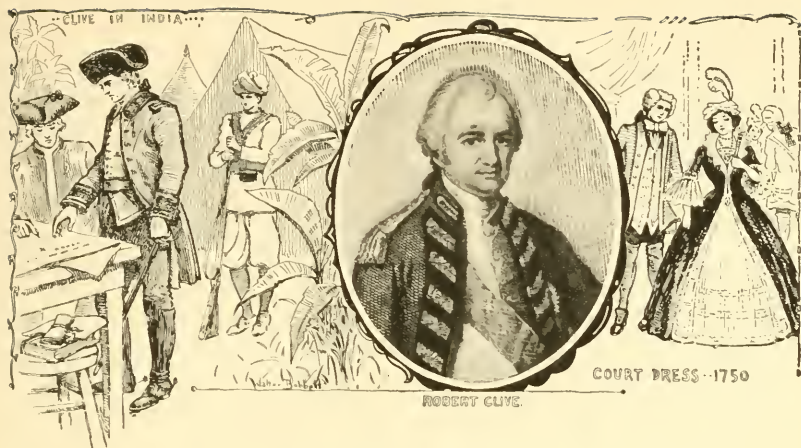
Describe the character of George III.; his dislike of Pitt.

Why was the son of James II. called the Pretender? How did the various foreigners happen to come to the throne of England? What brought about the changes in the government of England? Why could not William Pitt inherit the family wealth? How had Walpole misread Pitt's character? How did Pitt show knowledge of the fact that times had changed? What did Lord Falmouth mean by his remark about the five votes? What is one of the greatest foes to success? Why did the people distrust Pitt after he became an earl?



BRITISH STAMPS FOR AMERICA.\*

\* From Green's "A Short History of the English People." Reproduced by permission of Harper and Brothers.



## CHAPTER XXIII.

# Robert Clive.

1725-1774.

WHILE England was preparing for her great struggle with France, and the English and French colonies in America were so hostile that they found it difficult to keep peace with one another, Englishmen and Frenchmen were beginning a contest in far away India. It was at first a battle for commercial supremacy, for the right to carry on trade with the people of that great and flourishing country. Commercial supremacy could not be obtained without political power. In India, as well as in America, England was finally successful, and her victories in the far East were due in great measure to the military ability and political statesmanship of one man.

Robert Clive was born during the later portion of the reign of George I. As a boy he enjoyed out-of-door sports more than indoor study, although he never entirely neglected his books. He entered into all his games with great energy, and was said to be

“out of measure addicted to fighting.” He was always famous for courageous exploits, many of which showed more foolhardiness than judgment. When eleven years old he one day climbed the lofty steeple of a church, and seated himself on the stone dragon’s head at the top, where he remained for some time, terrifying the villagers by his dangerous position. As a man he showed the same disregard for a proper care of himself that he did when a boy.

Clive’s family was not wealthy, and they were glad to obtain for him a clerkship in the service of the East India Company at Madras. At the age of eighteen he left England, and after a voyage of fifteen months reached India. His first experiences in that country were far from pleasing. He was greatly in debt to the captain of the vessel on which he sailed, because of the length of the voyage. He had no friends, and being naturally shy with strangers did not attempt to make any. Moreover, he disliked his work; to be shut up day after day as a clerk in a business house was not in accord with his natural disposition. He became so discouraged that he determined to put an end to his life. He pointed a pistol at his head, but it missed fire; again he made the attempt and again failed. When an acquaintance entered his room, Clive asked him to fire off the pistol, and it was discharged at the first attempt. Thereupon Clive exclaimed, “Surely I must be reserved for something great, for I have twice fired that pistol at my head and it would not go off.”

In order to understand the work that Robert Clive did in India we must know something of the condition of that country at the time of his arrival. It will be remembered that the desire to trade with India brought about the famous voyage of Columbus; but it was Vasco da Gama, not Columbus, who first sailed from Europe to India. Portugal, not Spain, received the first benefit resulting from the discovery of this new route. When da Gama returned to Portugal, the king was so delighted with

the exploit that he sought to honor not da Gama, but himself, by assuming the title of "Lord of the Conquest, Navigation, and Commerce of Æthiopia, Arabia, Persia, and China."

It is stated that the profits of this first voyage of da Gama were sixty times the expenses. At the beginning of the sixteenth century the Portuguese were among the most enterprising people in the world, so it is not surprising that they should grasp this new opportunity for obtaining wealth. After opening the route to India, they kept it to themselves for nearly a hundred years, and thus controlled the trade between Europe and the East. A few years before the close of the century, however, Portugal was united with Spain, and after Sir Francis Drake destroyed the Spanish Armada, Portugal could no longer hold entire possession of the trade with India. At once the Dutch, the French, and the English opened up commerce with the East.

At the time when Clive arrived in India, the English had no political control of the country. They had established trading-posts at a few places along the coast, the most important of which were Bombay on the west, Madras on the south, and Calcutta on the northeast coast. These trading-posts had but few buildings and were protected by small forts. The government of the country was in the hands of native chiefs who were frequently at war with one another.

A few miles south of Madras was the French trading-post of Pondicherry (Pōn-dī-shēr'-ī), fully as important and as strong as any one of the English posts. Dupleix (Dū'-plā'), the governor of Pondicherry, had more soldiers under his control than had the English, and he had also enrolled some of the natives among his troops. When war broke out in Europe between England and France, Dupleix immediately attacked Madras, and, as it had no regular garrison, easily captured it. The English captives were sent to Pondicherry, from which town a few, including Clive, escaped to Fort St. David, where for nearly two

years they resisted every attack of the French. When a fleet and a small army arrived from England, the siege was raised and the English in turn besieged Pondicherry, until a storm scattered the fleet. A treaty between France and England was



CLIVE LEADING A CHARGE IN INDIA.

signed soon afterwards, and Madras was given back to the English.

It was during the siege of Pondicherry that Clive first distinguished himself as a soldier. After the treaty of peace he went back to the office to measure cloth and check accounts once more; but the slight taste of military life made this work more than ever distasteful to him. He was glad of an opportunity to join Major Lawrence, who was sent to capture the fort and



lands of Devicotta (Devi-kot'-ta). Clive made the first charge in storming the fort at the head of some native troops and thirty-four English soldiers. The Sepoys, or natives, held back and twenty-six of the English were cut to pieces. Clive escaped, since he carried himself, as Major Lawrence said, "with a cool courage and a presence of mind which never left him in the greatest danger. He was born a soldier; for, without a military education of any sort, or much conversation with any of the profession, from his judgment and good sense he led an army like an experienced officer and a brave soldier."

The next duty assigned to Clive was to relieve Trichinopoli (Trich-in-öp'-o-lī), where a native prince was besieged by the French together with an allied native prince. Clive saw at once that he could be of no assistance at Trichinopoli, but he knew that Arcot (Ar-cöt'), the capital of the native allies of the French, had been left with but small defenses. He hastened to Madras, obtained two hundred English troops and three hundred Sepoys, and at once set out on the sixty-mile journey to Arcot. A violent thunderstorm came on just before his army reached Arcot. When the native garrison learned that the storm of lightning, thunder, and rain had no terrors for the English, they immediately fled in panic, and Clive entered the fort without opposition.

The stratagem was successful. The French forces before Trichinopoli were weakened to besiege Arcot, and for fifty days Clive withstood one of the most memorable sieges in history. The fort was large and the soldiers were few; the walls were in a ruinous condition and everything was unfavorable for a defense. Clive had but eighty English and one hundred and fifty Sepoys fit for duty to resist the attacks of more than six thousand native soldiers. The final assault was unsuccessful, and the next day the besieging army had entirely disappeared. One day later the relieving English army from Madras entered the fort.

During the siege the stock of provisions became very low.

When it was apparent that the English might be compelled to surrender because of hunger, the Sepoys in the garrison refused to eat the rice that was furnished them and demanded the water in which it was boiled. "It is sufficient," they said, "for our support. The Europeans require the grain."

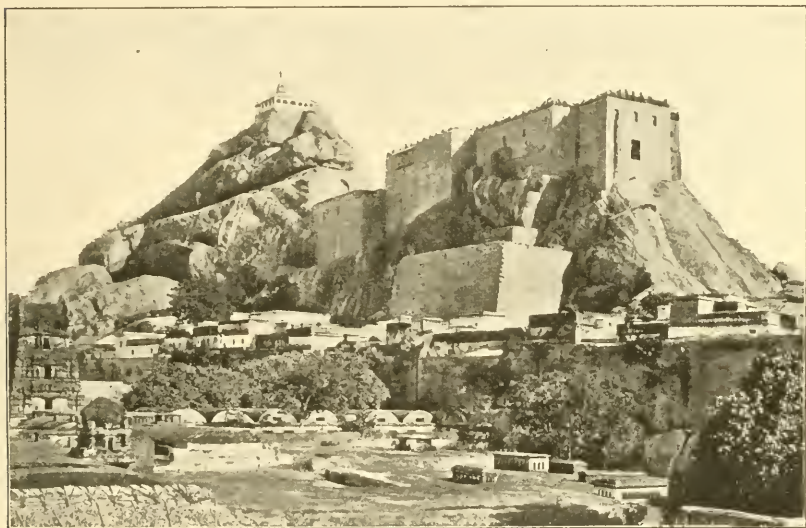
An expedition was fitted out for the relief of Trichinopoli with Major Lawrence in command. In spite of the opposition of regular officers of higher rank, the second place was given to the young hero of Arcot. During this campaign, Clive increased his reputation as a courageous and foolhardy soldier. One night, as he lay asleep in a hut, he was completely surprised by an attack of the enemy. Soldiers stretched on the ground by his side were instantly killed, and Clive himself was seriously wounded. Springing from the hut, he found himself facing the muzzles of the enemy's guns; then, pushing the guns aside, in a voice heard throughout the camp, he called on them to surrender, as they were surrounded. Encouraged by the boldness of their leader, the English and their Sepoy allies sprang to his rescue. The skirmish soon ceased, and in the morning a parley was agreed upon.

At the conference, Clive stood leaning against the wall of a building, resting on the shoulders of two sergeants. A deserter from the English ranks suddenly pointed his gun at the wounded commander and fired. Clive escaped by a miracle; both the sergeants fell mortally wounded. As a result of the parley, the leader of the attack surrendered his entire force. Soon after, the siege of Trichinopoli was raised. Clive's work as a soldier seemed over and he returned to England.

The hero of Arcot received a hearty welcome. The directors of the East India Company entertained him, and "General" Clive was honored and feasted throughout the land. He spared no expense in returning these favors, and though he had considerable wealth when he left India, he soon found that he had spent

it all. Accordingly he desired to return, and just as the Seven Years' War between France and England began, he received an appointment as governor of Fort St. David.

Scarcely had the new governor arrived at Madras when terrible news came from Calcutta. The native prince, whose ancestors for centuries had ruled the region round Calcutta, had been



THE ROCK OF TRICHINOPOLI.

growing more and more jealous of the English, and had at last decided that they must be driven from the country. Almost without warning he attacked and captured Calcutta. The garrison was very small, and most of the women and children had taken refuge on the ships. When the garrison surrendered, there were only one hundred and forty-six prisoners, all wearied and most of them wounded. A prison cell, with two small iron-barred windows, was made in the fort by walling in a space

eighteen feet square. Into this cell, "The Black Hole of Calcutta," the prisoners were driven at the point of the bayonet. The tale of their sufferings in this crowded cell is too terrible to repeat. In the morning twenty-three prisoners were taken out alive.

Clive was immediately sent with a strong force to Calcutta. After a difficult sea voyage he landed at the wrong place. He was surprised by the Sepoys, who forced him into a battle; but he succeeded in reaching Fort Budge, in the vicinity of Calcutta. This fort was shelled and breaches were made in the walls. Clive was intending to storm the fort in the morning, but the strange results of the freaks of a drunken soldier brought about its surrender. This fellow in his drunken wanderings happened to stray into the fort, but he was not so drunk that he did not know where he was. Shouting, "Hurrah, the fort is ours," he called on his imaginary followers to enter. The garrison immediately fled in fear, leaving everything behind them, and the capture of Calcutta soon followed.

The authorities of Madras requested Clive to bring back his army, but he realized that it would be necessary to complete the conquest of Bengal (Bēn-gāl'), the region about Calcutta, if it were to remain an English possession. He knew that the Nawab, or native ruler, was treacherous and must be taught a lesson; so he declared war on the Nawab, and marched north to attack him.

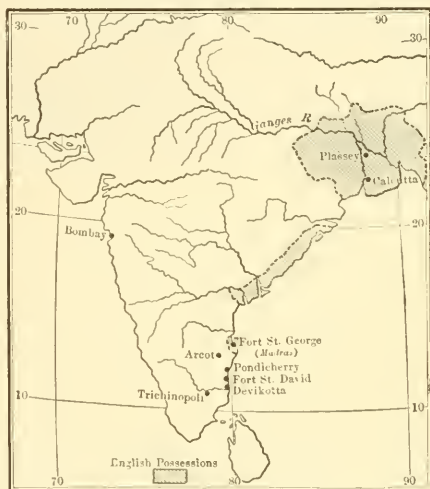
One of the Nawab's native enemies had sworn an alliance with the English, and Plassey (Plas'-ī) had been assigned as the field where he should bring reënforcements. But the native ally held aloof, and did not appear as expected; in fact, he preferred to wait until the battle was over, in order that he might join the victorious side. Clive's position was a dangerous one. His force consisted of not more than thirty-two hundred men, less than a third of whom were English, while the Nawab commanded thirty-five thousand infantry and fifteen thousand cav-

alry. For the only time in his career Clive held a council of war to determine whether or not to attack. Nine, including the commander, voted for delay, and seven for immediate attack. After the council, Clive spent an hour wandering through the woods by night. All the arguments for and against the battle passed through his mind, and he finally decided to change his decision and fight in the morning.

He took his position in a mango grove, where his soldiers were protected by trees and surrounding mud banks. Here he remained on the defensive. In the middle of the day a heavy shower of rain prevented the English from using their fire-locks, but the enemy did not take advantage of the opportunity to make an attack. For hours the incessant fire from the Nawab's forces continued without effect. Soon after mid-day the firing slackened, and the English began to act on the offensive. Little by little they drove the enemy from position after position until they fled in confusion. Clive had won a remarkable battle; he had defeated an army more than fifteen times as large as his own.

When the Duke of Wellington visited the battlefield of Plassey and carefully studied the positions of the English and their enemies, he did not hesitate to extol in the highest terms the military ability of the commanding officer.

The battle of Plassey, though not one of the greatest battles



INDIA IN THE TIME OF ROBERT CLIVE.

in the world's history, was the turning point in the history of a great country. It laid the foundations of the British Indian empire of to-day. Step by step the English have extended their territory in India, until at present the whole peninsular acknowledges British supremacy, and Edward VII. is its emperor.

Robert Clive had reached the highest point in his career. He had made many enemies, and he was never properly rewarded for his services. Though he was finally made Lord Clive, the honor was given grudgingly, and he was elevated to the lower order of the Irish, and not of the English, nobility. Disappointed at the ungratefulness of the English people, worn out with constant ill health, he died when less than fifty years of age.

Describe Clive's life as a boy ; as a clerk at Madras.

Show how Englishmen happened to be in India.

Tell the story of Pondicherry ; of Arcot ; of Trichinopoli.

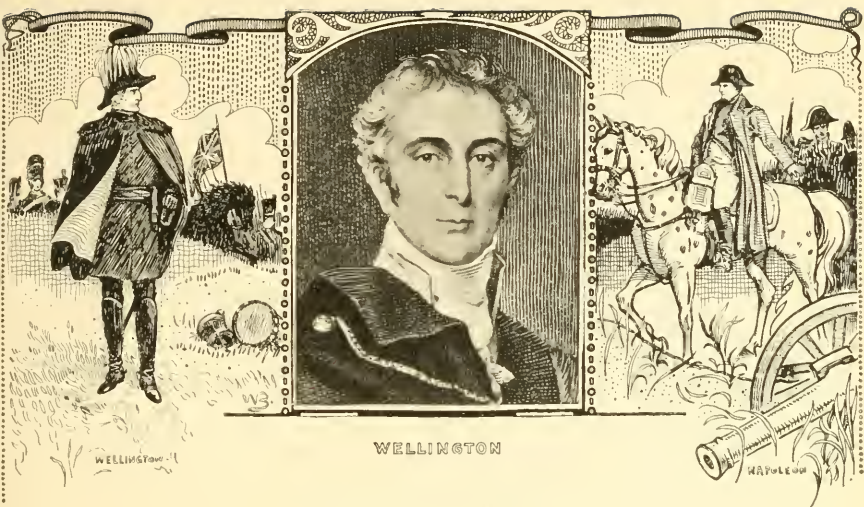
Give an account of Clive's reception in England ; his return to India ; his expedition to Calcutta ; his work in Bengal ; the battle of Plassey.

Why should Clive have been in debt because of the length of the voyage to India? What have always been the principal reasons for discovery and colonization? Is deception right in war and not in everyday life? Why should the English indifference to thunderstorms terrify the native troops? Is disobedience in battle a mark of courage?



AN EAST INDIA STEAMSHIP.





## CHAPTER XXIV.

# Wellington.

1769-1852.

THE people of a barbarous nation do not have much to do with any other people. There is no reason why they should. Their wants are simple; if they have plenty to eat, a shelter from rain and snow, and a fire to keep them warm, they need little more. All these necessities can be supplied within their own territory, and what goes on beyond its boundaries they little know or care. As they become more civilized their wants grow less simple. They find that their country cannot give them all they desire; some other land makes finer cloth, grows a different food, has better fuel. Some of their products their neighbor requires, and in time trade is carried on between the two countries. As they are bound closer and closer together and both come in contact with still other lands, they discover that whatever disturbs them, disturbs their neighbor, and whatever affects their neigh-

bor, affects them. No nation "can live for itself alone." In illustration of this principle, we shall soon learn how a great upheaval in political affairs in France brought another war on England.

France, unlike England, was an absolute monarchy. The people had no voice in the government, for the king's will was the only law of the land. Its court was the most brilliant, its nobles were the best dressed, and its women the wittiest in Europe. Immense sums of money were expended by the king, and the people were heavily taxed. This taxation was far different from that which England tried to force on the colonists in America, where it was levied on rich and poor alike. In France the common people—the peasant and the laborer—paid the biggest taxes.

Finally the burden grew too heavy to be borne; leaders came to the front and the people rebelled. At first they only demanded equal rights with the nobility and a share in the government. Later they rose against king and nobles and declared the country a republic. The people had had even less experience in controlling themselves than in guiding the affairs of a nation; therefore they became worse tyrants than their old rulers. Their leaders had no principles, and continually urged the mob to do its worst. A "reign of terror" followed; the king and queen were put to death, and hundreds of others were beheaded, some because they belonged to the nobility, and some because their wealth was coveted. A Paris mob ruled France, and no life or property was safe. Only when the people became tired of blood, and fire, and strife, did they listen to wiser councils. Then France was governed according to law and justice.

Frenchmen were not content with straightening out their own tangles, but they began to consider themselves reformers and offered their soldiers to aid all peoples against their rulers. It was not long before Europe was in arms against them. England held

aloof for some time, for her people at first sympathized with the French in their efforts to obtain self-government. It was not until they had carried their freedom too far that sympathy turned to disgust and fear. Then England joined the other powers in the attempt to restore the old monarchy.

The Allies had little success in their conflict with France, whose armies were led by Napoleon Bonaparte, a young Corsican. Not only had he taken the highest place in France, with a power as absolute as that of the king who had been put to death, but he had become the master of the most of Europe. Frenchmen had ceased to be reformers; more territory, more power, was the ceaseless desire of the young Napoleon. He coveted English wealth and English supremacy on the sea; but his plans to invade England were continually met by the problem of how to take his army across a channel guarded by English ships. "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours and we will be masters of the world," he is said to have exclaimed.

Napoleon planned a scheme which, if it had been successful, would have given him his desire. He sent his fleet to the West Indies, hoping that the English admiral would follow; then while



NAPOLÉON.

the English were searching for them, the ships were to hurry back and guard the Channel while the French army crossed. The first part of the plan prospered, but when Admiral Nelson could not find the enemy, he, too, set sail with all haste for England. He came upon the French fleet off Cape Trafalgar (Träf-al-gär'), on the southern coast of Spain. Lord Nelson's signal was, "England expects every man to do his duty," and every Englishman obeyed. Although Nelson was killed, his ships were victorious, and England was saved. William Pitt, the Younger, who was at the time prime minister, said, "England has saved herself by her courage; she will save Europe by her example."

Europe, however, was in a sad plight; for Napoleon, if not successful on the sea, had continual victory on the land. The armies of Russia, Austria, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Holland, and Spain had surrendered to him. Not only was he Emperor of France, but members of his family occupied several thrones of Europe. The Spanish peasantry were the only people who resisted, but they gave the opportunity that England needed. An army was sent into the Spanish Peninsula, and from that time Napoleon's power began to wane.

The English armies were commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley (Wělz'lě), afterward known as the Duke of Wellington. He was then a young officer who had had considerable experience in fighting the natives in India. He had been successful in his many conflicts, from the time when a schoolboy at Eton he had been victorious in a fight with a schoolmate. In India it was said that if ever he "has an opportunity to distinguish himself, he will do so, and greatly."

Unlike Napoleon, Wellesley thought little of glory. When he had done his duty, "according to the best of my judgment," he cared "not either for the enemy in front or for anything they may say at home." "Some Frenchman," Wellington once remarked, "has said that the word *duty* is to be found in every page

of my despatches, and the word *glory* not once. This is meant, I am told, as a reproach; but the foolish fellow did not see that if mere glory had been my object, doing my duty must have been the means."

Such was the general who was to break Napoleon's power completely. The French army in Spain far outnumbered the English with its Spanish and Portuguese allies. Wellington's campaign consisted in advancing, winning a victory, and retreating; but in the end the French were driven from the peninsula. At the same time Napoleon was defeated by the Allies in Germany, and was obliged to abdicate the throne and go to the island of Elba, where he lived as a prisoner.

One day he escaped, returned to France, resumed his title of emperor, and raised an army. All the European powers prepared to oppose him, and at Waterloo, near Brussels, they met. The Duke of Wellington commanded the army of the Allies, and the battle resulted in the complete defeat of Napoleon. Never again would he conquer the united armies of Europe. He was sent to the lonely island of St. Helena (He-lē'-na), off the west coast of Africa, where he spent the rest of his life, a closely guarded prisoner.



LORD NELSON.



In this battle of Waterloo, when all his staff were killed or wounded, Wellington could not be persuaded to seek shelter. He seemed to have no fear. Not only did he direct the whole battle, but he led several charges, cheering the troops with his encouraging words. One of the commanders of the artillery came



*From the painting by Clennell.*

WELLINGTON LEADING THE DECISIVE CHARGE AT WATERLOO.

to him, saying that at last they had been able to train the guns on the clump of trees where Napoleon and his staff were standing.

"If you will allow me, I think we can pick some of them off," he reported.

"No, no," replied Wellington. "Generals-in-chief have something to do in a great battle besides firing at each other." All



this while bullets were continually falling about him, for the French gunners had observed his position.

Thousands of soldiers were killed on each side. "Believe me," said Wellington, "nothing except a battle lost can be half so melancholy as a battle won. To win such a battle as this of Waterloo, at the expense of so many gallant friends, could only be termed a heavy misfortune, but for the result to the public. My heart is broken by the terrible loss sustained in my old friends and companions and my poor soldiers."

While the list of the dead was read to him by his physician, "The Iron Duke," as he was called because his enemies thought he had no heart, sat on the edge of his cot, with his hands clasped and tears rolling down his cheeks.

Wellington lived many years, one of the most honored men in England. He was made commander-in-chief of the army, was created a duke, was appointed to various cabinet positions, and for two years was prime minister. Notwithstanding his high position he ever retained his love for a simple life. He never drank, he never smoked, and his chamber was furnished no better than his tent on the field of battle—with a narrow iron bed, and with horsehair mattress and pillows. "Everything with him was simple, direct, straightforward."

One other characteristic of the great duke is well worth imitating. He was never known to tell a falsehood; his despatches to England from the field of battle could always be relied on as absolutely trustworthy. "The duke's whole existence was a practical refutation of all falsehood. This is high praise in an age like the present, when the great difficulty is to find persons uniformly speaking the truth."

Tell the reasons for the French Revolution.

Show how the Revolution troubled Europe.

Tell the story of Napoleon's successes; the plans to invade England; the battle of Trafalgar; Napoleon's final defeat.

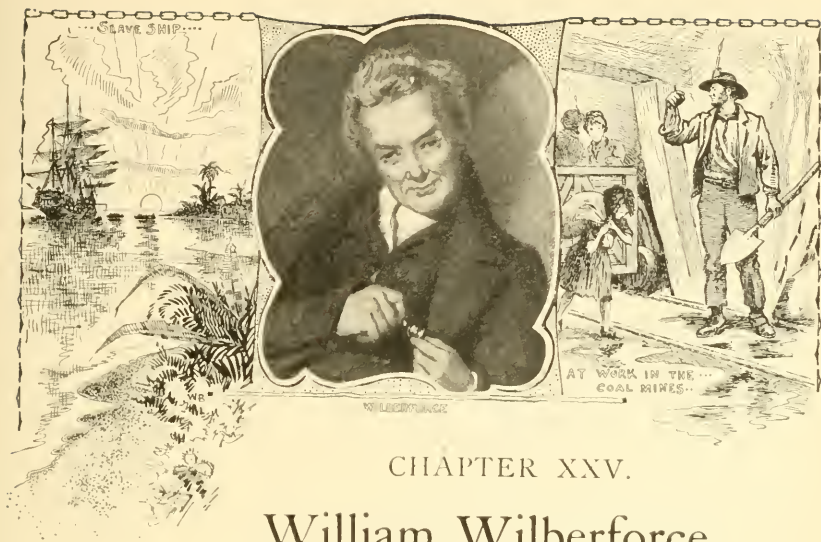
Explain how the English were finally drawn into another conflict with France.

Illustrate by stories the character of Wellington.

What nation in modern times has tried to "live for itself alone"? What has been the result? Why did the English sympathize with the French in their effort to win self-government? Why did the excesses of the French Revolution produce fear in England? What were two good points in Wellington's character? What were some of the defects in Napoleon's character?



A SOLDIER AND A SAILOR, 1800.



## CHAPTER XXV.

# William Wilberforce.

1759-1833.

WE often hear elderly people speak of the "good old times," when they or their fathers were children. To some the days "when George the Third was king" were the best in the world's history; but to those who know the conditions of all classes of people during the last part of the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth centuries, it seems a marvel how any life could be happy in those days. It was a time of heavy taxation. The wars with America and with France were expensive, and everything was taxed. There were "taxes on every article that enters the mouth or covers the back, or is placed under the foot; taxes on everything that is pleasant to feel, smell, or taste; taxes upon the sauces which pamper man's appetite, and on the drug which restores him to health; on the ermine which covers the judge, and on the rope which hangs the criminal; on the poor man's salt, and on the rich man's spice; on the brass nails of the coffin, and the ribbons of the bride." Yet the rich lived in more

comfort than at any previous time—they were better housed, better clothed, and had more variety of food; but they were coarse in thought and speech, and the majority cared for little beyond their own pleasure.

The poor were terribly oppressed. Many among the wealthy were kind-hearted and charitable, but no one thought to teach the poor to help themselves. The master had all the rights and the laborer none. Just before the beginning of the nineteenth century, people began to realize the evils about them. One reform followed another, until by the middle of the century the worst of these wrongs were remedied. Strangely, the first thing that attracted the sympathies of the benevolent was not the sorrows of the oppressed at home, but the condition of the slaves in the colonies.

Since the time of Sir John Hawkins, English merchants had been engaged in the slave trade, first to supply the Spanish colonies in America, and afterward her own. Ships sailed from Liverpool and other ports to the African coast, where negroes captured in the interior were crowded into miserable quarters on board ship, and carried across the Atlantic. The cruelties practised by the captors and the sufferings of the slaves were too horrible even to mention. "There is not a stone in Liverpool that is not cemented by the blood of Africans," said Cooke, a famous actor of the time. It must not be supposed that the English people were wholly indifferent to these evils. Even in the time of Elizabeth the trade was looked on with contempt and loathing, but all efforts to stop it came to nothing. That a bill abolishing the slave trade was finally passed in Parliament was due largely to the efforts of William Wilberforce.

Wilberforce in early life would have been the last person to have thought of such matters. When he entered St. John's College he was wealthy in his own right, and he was immediately thrown among a wild set of students who drank much and lived

badly. If Wilberforce attempted to study, they would say, "Why in the world should a man of your fortune trouble himself with fagging?" He broke with this set before he left college, but was obliged to work hard to make up for his idleness. He had a fine voice, was a witty conversationalist, and a great favorite in fashionable society.

One winter, soon after entering Parliament, he went to Nice with his mother and a friend, Isaac Milner. Before they started, he happened to pick up a new book, Doddridge's "Rise and Progress of Religion," and asked Milner what he thought of it.

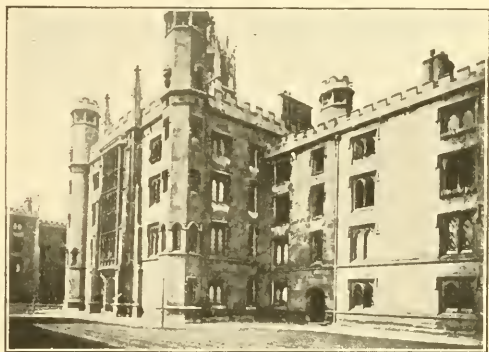
"It is one of the best books ever written," replied his friend; "let us take it with us and read it on the journey."

The reading and the discussion of the book greatly impressed Wilberforce. He became

dissatisfied with the life he was leading and felt that he had wasted his talents. When he returned home, he had determined to devote himself to helping his fellow-men. His family, hearing of his change of life, thought he had gone mad, but when they saw him, his sweetness and kindness surprised them, and one of them said, "If this be madness, I hope it will bite us all."

Among the many miseries that attracted his attention was the slave trade. He studied the subject carefully, and William Pitt, who was always his friend, urged him to bring up the subject in Parliament.

Meanwhile another man, Thomas Clarkson, had also been



ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

making a thorough study of the slave trade. While he was in college, this topic had been given out as a subject for a thesis,—“Is it Right to Make Slaves of Others against their Will?” Clarkson had won a prize the year before and was anxious to win this one also, so he went to London and hunted up all the material he could find. He was distressed at the horrors that were revealed, and having won the prize, he devoted himself to agitating against the trade.

He was unwilling to accept the common stories, that slaves were kidnapped in the interior of Africa, without a thorough investigation. He could not go to Africa himself, but a gentleman had told him that once he had met a sailor who had made several trips into the interior. What his name was and from what port he sailed he did not know. To search for him was like hunting for the needle in a haystack, but Clarkson determined to visit the various ports of England in the hope that, if he could not discover this particular sailor, he could find someone who had been to Africa.

“At length,” he writes, “I arrived at the place of my last hope [Plymouth]. On my first day’s expedition I boarded fifty vessels, but found no one who had been on the coast of Africa in the slave trade. One or two had been there in the king’s ships, but they had never been ashore. The next morning I felt agitated between the alternate pressure of hope and fear; and in this state I entered my boat. The fifty-seventh vessel I boarded was the *Melampus* frigate. One person belonging on it, on examination in the captain’s cabin, said he had been on two voyages to Africa, and I had not long conversed with him before I found that he was the man.”

Clarkson was introduced to Wilberforce, and they worked together for a common purpose. A society was formed, and a bill for the total abolition of the slave trade was brought up in Parliament, with Wilberforce as the leader. William Pitt,



Edmund Burke, Charles James Fox, and many other well-known statesmen spoke strongly in favor of the bill. It was soon discovered that the fortunes of many people were connected with the traffic. Year after year the debate ran on, until twenty years had passed before the bill became a law.

Although the slave trade was stopped, it was seen that the condition of the negroes who were already slaves was not improved. Terrible stories of the flogging and branding of slaves in the Indies were current, and most of them, on examination, were found to be true. Those who had worked for the abolishment of the slave trade, now began to agitate for the complete emancipation of the slaves. This caused even greater opposition, if possible. Many members of Parliament had large plantations in the West Indies. It was generally thought that no white man could stand hard labor under a tropical sun, and that if the negroes were freed, they would refuse to work and the islands would go to waste. People who had no special property interests could not understand the motives that influenced the Abolitionists, and agreed with Charles Greville, who in his "Journal" wrote: "Of all political feelings and passions—and such this rage for emancipation is—it has always struck me as the most extraordinary and remarkable." The king was greatly opposed to the movement. Yet notwithstanding all the exertions of the planters and their friends, the emancipation bill was passed, and about eight hundred thousand slaves were made free.

The news was received in the islands with great fear, for the planters expected that the negroes would rise and destroy all the whites. The day before the bill went into effect, several American vessels that had been anchored in the harbor of Antigua (*Ante'-gwa*) sailed away. Many people refused to go to bed, "awaiting with fluttering pulse the hour of midnight, fearing that the bell which sounded the jubilee of the slaves might toll the death knell of the master." England's example has been followed by all

civilized countries, for it is acknowledged that slavery degrades not only the slave, but the master as well.

The opposition to the emancipation bill brought forward an argument that could not be overlooked by the philanthropists of the early nineteenth century. "Look at home!" people said. "Don't you know that there is white slavery as well as black slavery? The black slaves in the West Indies are better fed and cared for than the white slaves in the factories and mines."



CHIMNEY SWEEPS.

The excessive taxations and the wars had brought great suffering to the poor. The prices of everything had increased, and the wages of workingmen had not. Their families were large, and it was a difficult matter to feed and clothe a large family on less than three dollars a week. Consequently, even little children were sent to work in the new factories that were so rapidly springing up in all parts

of England, in order that their small earnings might be added to the family purse. It is said that more than half the hands in the cotton factories were under eighteen years of age. The times were brutal. The employers hardly considered those in their employ as human beings, and the terrible struggle for bread often destroyed parental love. Each child was only another wage-earner, and babies almost were sent out barefooted at half past five in the morning, to return in the evening so tired that only torture could make them wake the next morning. Often the

hands worked fourteen and sixteen hours a day for miserably small wages.

At the time of the debate in Parliament, this story was published in the "London Times": "Many times of an evening when I have passed on from child to child in a woolen mill, each has turned up its little face and anxiously inquired, 'What o'clock is 't?'"

"I have answered, 'Seven.'"

"'Seven'? was the rejoinder. 'Why, it's three hours to ten, isn't it? We moant gee up till ten and past.'"

The factory hands were not the only sufferers. In the mines the conditions were, if possible, still worse. There women and children crawled back and forth on hands and knees fourteen hours a day, in the dark, dirty coal seams, dragging loaded and empty cars attached by a long chain to a belt bound about the waist. Even children of four worked in seams too narrow for grown people.

Little children were apprenticed to chimney sweeps, and their sufferings were equally great. Chimneys were high and narrow, and when filled with soot, would not draw. Then a sweep would be called in to clean the chimney by brushing down the soot as he ascended. No ladders were built inside, and the little fellow must climb over the rough stones and bricks by his knees and elbows. When he reached the top he cried out, "Sweep! sweep!" so that the master might know that the work was done.

One at a time these evils were stopped. All women and children were forbidden to work in the mines; hours of work in the factories were shortened, and climbing boys could not be employed by chimney sweeps. Each reform was unpopular among the employers and the employed, but the nation had awakened to the fact that even parents could not be allowed to do what they pleased with their own children.

This unnatural work made the people ignorant, and ignorance makes crime. The authorities knew no better way to stop crime than to punish. The smallest wrongdoing had a penalty wholly out of proportion to the offense. One writer has said that England's criminal laws would be a disgrace to barbarism. One hundred and sixty different crimes were punishable by death. If a boy



*From the painting by Barrett.*

MRS. FRY READING TO THE PRISONERS IN NEWGATE.

stole from a shop five shillings' worth of goods, he could be sent to the gallows. Men were hung for stealing fish, for cutting grapevines, and for breaking trees. Punishment was not long delayed, and the criminal was not allowed the help of lawyers. If one was unjustly executed, as would sometimes happen, his friends were told that "he who falls by a mistaken sentence may be considered as falling for his country."

Though the laws were not always wholly carried out, they were not repealed. Judges considered that people would be kept from crime if they knew that a severe punishment might follow wrongdoing. Consequently wickedness, instead of decreasing, increased. Sir Samuel Romilly (Röm'-il-i), who began the agitation, and others who took up the work after his death, worked for years before they could make Parliament see the necessity for reform in the criminal code; but finally the death penalty was removed from all crimes but that of murder.

Meanwhile the prisons needed attention. Prisoners of all classes—the debtor, the murderer, the thief, and others—were confined together, and no provision was made to make them better or to keep them busy. Idleness is good for no one, and the prisoners, when released, were probably worse than when first imprisoned. Mrs. Elizabeth Fry begged permission from those in authority to help and give employment to the women of Newgate Prison. The officials tried to persuade her that “her efforts would be utterly fruitless”; that there was no room where she could start a school for the children, and that whatever work the women could be induced to do would be stolen. She would not be thus discouraged, and with some friends she lived almost wholly at the prison. The children were taught, the women were given work, and in an incredibly short time a great transformation took place. The women grew gentler, their language better, and their thoughts purer. The authorities saw the wisdom of her plan, and the good work was carried to other prisons of England, and to other countries.

By the heroic and self-sacrificing efforts of these and other noble men and women, the English people were taught their responsibility to their humble and suffering brothers and sisters. Never again could the nation be completely indifferent to their wrongs.

Contrast the English with the French method of taxation.

Describe Willerforce's early life ; his change of opinions.

Tell the story of Thomas Clarkson.

Give an account of the stopping of the slave trade ; of the abolishment of slavery.

Describe the condition of the factory hands ; of the miners ; of the chimney sweeps.

Describe the criminal laws ; the prisons.

Why do the old days often seem to be the best days ? How does the present compare with the past ? What were some of the reasons for the indifference to suffering ? What had become of the old Saxon belief in the rights of the individual man ? What is the lot of all reformers ? Why may a severe law unenforced be worse than no law at all ?



A KING'S SHIP CHASING A SLAVER.





## CHAPTER XXVI.

# Daniel O'Connell.

1775-1847.

IT is necessary to go back many hundred years in order to understand the life of Daniel O'Connell and the work that he did for Ireland. The English and the Irish belonged to two separate races. The Irish were Celts (Sélts), and were a part of the same great family as the Scots and the ancient Britons. In England the Celts had been either killed or driven into Wales, and their places had been taken by a very different people—the Teutons. This race had never conquered Ireland, and though they were close neighbors they had very little acquaintance with the inhabitants of the island across the Irish Sea. Both peoples had become Christianized, but otherwise they had little in common. The Teutons came in contact with the more civilized countries of southern Europe; their manners grew gen-

tlar, they thought more of peace and less of war, and they became one nation. The people of Ireland had almost no communication with other lands; they were divided into wild, warring tribes, and retained many of the rude customs of their barbarous ancestors.

When Henry II. was king, the Pope, who was an Englishman, gave Ireland to England. He claimed this right, because to him, as the head of the Church, belonged "all islands" that had received "the teachings of the holy faith." This unasked-for gift brought to England much trouble and perplexity, and to Ireland unhappiness and discontent.

The English paid little attention to Ireland until the time of Henry VIII. A few Englishmen had settled there, but they held almost no intercourse with the Irish. Each people lived its own life. When England became Protestant, Elizabeth determined that Ireland, too, should become Protestant. She advised, however, that "the people who had been trained in another religion" should not be forced "too hastily" into the new; but the zeal of her ministers overcame the wisdom of the queen. The Irish were compelled to close their churches. They hated the English bishops sent to Ireland, burned the houses over their heads, and made it unsafe for them to travel. Even Bishop Staples, who had been much beloved before he became a Protestant, was urged by one of his former priests not to go to one of the outlying districts to present the new form of worship. "Ye were the best beloved man in your diocese," he said; "now ye are the worst beloved. . . . The country folks would eat you. . . . Ye have more curses than ye have hairs of your head." Wandering friars went from hamlet to hamlet encouraging the cottagers to remain true to the Catholic faith.

A terrible revolution naturally broke out, and it was put down with a cruel hand. Englishmen settled in Ireland and took away the land from its owners; they looked down upon the Irish as an inferior people and treated them as little better than

slaves. As years went on, conditions grew worse rather than better. We might expect that a nation which had continually struggled with kings for the rights of the common people would have some sympathy for the oppressed Catholics, but in those days few acknowledged the right of religious freedom. Catholics believed that no one could be a Christian who was not a Catholic; Episcopalians thought every one should be a member of the Established Church; and Puritans, who had struggled against both Catholics and Episcopalians, considered the Puritan faith the only true faith.

Even now we are only beginning to learn that a member of any church can be a Christian, and that every man should have the privilege to worship as he thinks right. Daniel O'Connell himself once urged: "Every religion is good—every religion is true to him



AN IRISH PEASANT'S HOME.

who in his due caution and conscience believes it. There is but one bad religion, that of a man who professes a faith which he does not believe."

Very severe laws were passed against this rebellious people. Though over three-fourths of the inhabitants of Ireland were Catholics, they were not allowed one representative in the Irish Parliament. A Protestant whose father was a Catholic could take all the family property and make the father a tenant; if a Catholic had a good horse, his Protestant neighbor could claim it by offering five pounds; if he leased a piece of land and a Protestant wanted it, he had to pack up his goods and move. No

Papist could teach any child not his own; no priest could convert a Protestant without being imprisoned, and if he married a Catholic to a Protestant he was to be hanged.

Irish trade, too, was taken away. Cattle could not be sent to England for fear Englishmen might not sell their own beef and mutton; woolen goods could not be exported because Englishmen might have less sale for their manufactures. With their land gone, with trade forbidden, is it any wonder that the Irish became poor, sullen, and unruly? It was said that "Ireland was the least law-abiding country in Europe."

By the end of the eighteenth century the worst of these laws had been repealed, but there was still so much dissatisfaction in Ireland that William Pitt decided that the easiest way to put an end to the difficulties was to abolish the Irish Parliament. Since the first year of the nineteenth century there has been but one Parliament for England, Scotland, and Ireland. The question, however, seemed no nearer to being solved than before, for the Catholics had no more representatives in the Parliament that met at London than they had in the Parliament at Dublin. Still they were not united in their demands for Catholic representation, and their requests received little attention in England.

Finally, an Irish lawyer, Daniel O'Connell, perceived that if he could unite all the Irish Catholics, they could send to Parliament a demand from the whole nation that must be heeded. No better leader could have been found. O'Connell had great tact and understood men thoroughly. He knew who could be easily influenced by flattery, who could be moved by fright, and who by love. His wit and skill in debate won the admiration of the Irish peasantry, and having early gained the help and goodwill of the priests, he step by step brought the Catholics into one great association.

Parliament could not find any fault with the meetings of the Catholic Association. O'Connell ever urged the people not to

take up arms. He knew their cause would be completely lost the moment they became warlike; nothing could be gained except by peaceful agitation. In later years he made many enemies by adhering to this policy, and his opponents declared that next to Great Britain he was the worst enemy Ireland ever had. But England would never have yielded to the demand for representation if O'Connell had not kept the Irish within bounds by his firm stand that "no political change is worth a drop of blood."

Finally Parliament realized that it must listen to a united people. While the Duke of Wellington was prime minister, a bill admitting Catholics to the House of Commons was proposed and carried, in 1830. This is the tenth great date in English history—the beginning of true religious freedom. A few years later, Jews were admitted to Parliament, and no longer did a man's religion keep him from his rightful place among the lawmakers of the kingdom.

King George IV. at first refused to sign the act, but when the wisdom of making the bill a law was urged upon him, he reluctantly added his name, saying ungraciously, "The Duke of Wellington is king of England, O'Connell is king of Ireland, and I suppose that I am only Dean of Windsor."

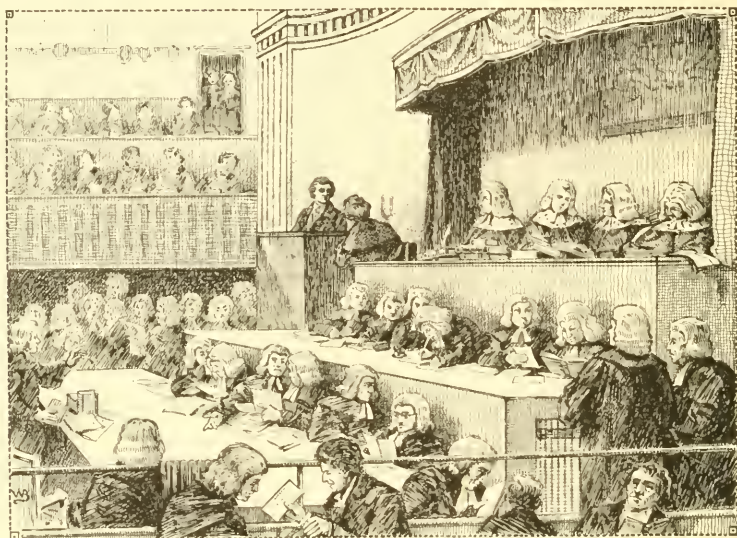
Meanwhile, in expectation of this event, O'Connell had been elected as the first Catholic member of the House of Commons from Ireland. When he took his seat, a great throng was present.



GEORGE IV.



Some evidently expected to see an uncouth barbarian; others were curious to see the man who, single-handed, had united a nation and won over a hostile government. His position was not an easy one. The king hated him, and Englishmen snubbed him, even though they acknowledged his ability.



THE TRIAL OF O'CONNELL.

In Ireland he was called the "Liberator." The people loved and revered him; all wanted to shake his hand or draw his carriage. While riding in one of the processions after his election, he was met by a military detachment. As it passed the carriage, a young Irish sergeant left his men and asked to shake O'Connell's hand. "In acting as I do now," he said, "I am guilty of infringing military discipline. Perhaps I may be flogged for it, but I don't care. Let them punish me in any way they please; let them flog me and send me to the ranks. I have



had the satisfaction of shaking the hand of the father of my country."

The admission of the Catholics to Parliament by no means put an end to all the Irish grievances. The people were still miserably poor; the land was owned by the great estates; the Protestants had more rights, and, above all, the Catholics continued to pay the hated tithes for the support of the Established Church. They began to ask for Home Rule—that is, they wanted back the separate Irish Parliament, which they hoped would make more equal the conditions of rich and poor.

At this crisis, O'Connell brought to life the old Catholic Association; he regained his influence over the people and kept them from bloodshed. "He who commits a crime adds strength to his enemies," he constantly urged. Immense meetings were held, and perfect order prevailed. At one of these meetings, which took place at the "Tarah of the Kings," where in olden times the Irish chiefs were crowned, over a hundred thousand are said to have been present. The people gathered early; the priests, moving from place to place, gave their blessing, and the music of the mass ascended with the smoke of incense. When O'Connell began to speak, there was perfect silence. As he proceeded, the throng cheered or laughed or wept as he played upon its sympathies.

"To the last verge of that vast audience sent,  
It played with each wild passion as it went;  
Now stirred the uproar—now the murmur stilled,  
And sobs and laughter answered it at will.  
Then did I know the spell of infinite choice  
To rouse or lull has the sweet human voice."

O'Connell said that he would never have dared to hold these immense meetings if he had not had "teetotalism for his policeman." At this time Father Matthew was carrying on his crusade against the drink habit. As a part of his work as parish priest

in Cork, he started a temperance campaign which was extended to other cities of Ireland, to England, and even to America. This helped to bring about a great decrease of lawlessness and crime, and so great was Father Matthew's success that superstitious people claimed that he received miraculous help from Heaven. So it was that, for a time, "teetotalism was nearly as popular as repeal."

The English Government became alarmed by these great gatherings. Troops were sent to Ireland, the meetings were forbidden, and O'Connell was arrested and held for trial. He was sentenced to two years' imprisonment and a heavy fine, though it could not be proved that he had urged the Irish to rebellion. Parliament saw the unfairness of the verdict, and set it aside. When the news reached Ireland that O'Connell had been liberated, bonfires were lighted from sea to sea. During his short imprisonment, however, the younger Irishmen had taken control of affairs, and many were the controversies and even feuds between those who advocated and those who opposed violent measures. O'Connell was supported by most of the Irish clergy, but his power was gone. He was an old man; his health broke down, and he died soon after in Italy. At his funeral these words were spoken:

"Never yet felt a sovereign toward his people, or a general toward his army, or a ruler for his subjects, or a pastor for his flock, nay, or a father for his children, more deeply solicitous, more tender or more generous than Daniel O'Connell for his beloved countrymen. He loved but them. For them only he lived."

After his death the Irish were led by men either unable to control the people or unwilling to keep them from bloodshed. Much trouble and many misunderstandings followed, for which neither Celts nor Teutons were alone responsible. After years of constant discussion, Parliament passed a Land Act that lessened

the hardships of the tenants and removed many causes of irritation, but the demand for Home Rule continues to disturb Parliament even to the present time.

Contrast the Celts and the Teutons.

Show how England came to own Ireland; how England attempted to force Protestantism upon the Irish; the result.

State some of the laws passed against the Irish Catholics.

Give an account of O'Connell's agitation; its success; the demand for Home Rule.

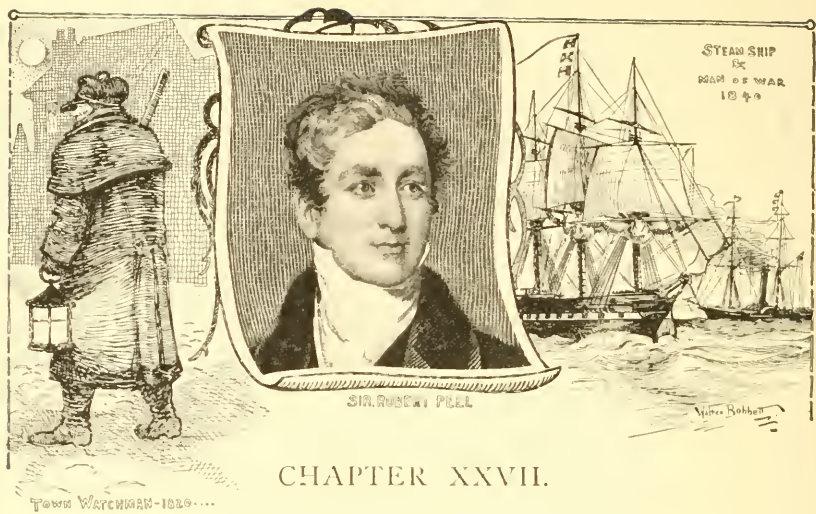
Describe the great mass meeting at the "Tarah of the Kings."

What are some of the reasons for the friction between the English and the Irish? How was the method of Parliament the worst possible way to make Protestants of the Irish? What was the secret of Daniel O'Connell's influence? What are the first nine great dates in English history?



THE BANNER OF THE ROYAL ARMS.

As borne since 1837.



## CHAPTER XXVII.

# Robert Peel.

1788-1850.

ABOUT the middle of the eighteenth century an English yeoman was experimenting with calico-weaving in a farmhouse in Lancashire. Machinery had recently been invented that made possible the weaving of cotton into cloth, and he was trying various schemes to make this cloth more salable. The goods called calico were far from pretty, for the color was either a dirty white or some dull shade without figures. No one who dressed well would wear these homely cottons.

This yeoman had already discovered that figures could be printed on cloth, when one day his daughter came in from the garden with a parsley leaf in her hand. She suggested that it would make a good pattern, and her father, after a little hesitation, told her that he would try it. A small block of wood was found, and with his knife he carved the design of a parsley leaf. On the kitchen table he laid a blanket and above it placed a piece of white cotton. Then having dampened his carved block

of wood with green dye, he brought it squarely down on the cloth, struck it a quick blow with a mallet, and lifted it. On the white surface was a perfect representation of a parsley leaf. With great patience he continued this process until the whole cloth was covered. His neighbors who saw it bought some; their friends wanted more; and the whole family was kept busy from morning until night printing and ironing out the new cottons. Orders came in faster than they could be filled. In time machinery was invented to take the place of the slow hand work, and a factory was built that employed many families.

This clever yeoman was named Robert Peel. When he was a boy he spelled his family name with an *e* at the end, but after he grew up he dropped this final letter of his name "because it was no use at all, as it did not add to the

sound." The Peels, for many years leaders in England, were always proud of their free yeoman blood, and the elder Peel resented attempts to honor him because of his increasing prosperity and influence. Once, it is told, when he received a letter addressed to "Robert Peel, Esq.," he exclaimed, "a pretty esquire, truly!"

Robert Peel had a son, also Robert Peel, who went into his father's business and made a great fortune. When funds were being raised for the war with France he subscribed ten thousand pounds. Already a member of the House of Commons, he was made a baronet by the king as a reward for this great gift. Sir



STAMPING CALICO.

Robert Peel was an admirer of the younger William Pitt, and he longed greatly for a son who might be a successor to this statesman. When his son was born, it is said that the father fell on his knees and vowed that he would give his child to his country. From babyhood the boy was trained with the prime ministership in view, and, as a result, he grew up different from other boys. He disliked their rough play, and would "walk a mile round rather than encounter the rude jests of the Berry lads." At school he "never got into scrapes and always knew his lessons." When he left Oxford he was graduated at the head of his class, and immediately was elected a member of the House of Commons. He held one high office after another, until his father's ambition was realized and he became prime minister.

Robert Peel, when he entered public life, was a Tory, as his father had been before him. He considered it his duty to retain the old methods and the old theories as long as possible. But as he studied national life closely, and saw how the ancient laws oppressed the English people, he grew gradually away from the principles of his party. Through his influence, reform after reform was made by Parliament. Though the leaders of the Tories scoffed at him and called him traitor and turncoat, he continually upheld the cause of truth and right. Thereby he won the respect and love of the nation.

When he was home secretary, he established a new police system for London. The old constables, who were supposed to look out for life and property, were practically useless. Frequently, like the police of Edinburgh described by Sir Walter Scott, they were soldiers too old and infirm to serve in the army, and were more often squabbling with the boys and the rabble than catching thieves. Under the new system, the inhabitants of London expected their liberties to be taken away, and members of Parliament severely attacked the reform. The streets rang with "Down with the new police," and derisive cries of "Peelers" and "Bob-



bies" greeted the force; but London soon found that Robert Peel had given them greater freedom and more safety at home and on the street.

Although the people were supposed to be, through the House of Commons, the real governing power of England, they were far from being fairly represented. England had greatly changed since the members were proportioned among the towns and counties. Some towns, like Old Sarum, had hardly a single inhabitant, and were still entitled to two members in the House, while large cities like Manchester and Birmingham had none. The country people and the landholders were represented, but the shopkeepers and the townsmen were not.

A bill was brought before Parliament to make more fair the representation in the House of Commons. The Tories and the House of Lords were set against it. Even Wellington believed that if the bill were passed "the poor would seize the property of the rich and divide it amongst themselves." The bill failed to become a law, and a great commotion resulted in all the large towns. Immense meetings were held, riots followed, demands for "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill," were loudly called, and the country seemed to be on the verge of a revolution. In the midst of this disturbance the cholera broke out. The clergy, who were opposed to the bill, proclaimed that the plague was a "judgment," because an attempt had been made to "meddle with old institutions." Probably the other side considered it a judgment because Parliament had refused to grant needed reform.

Peel, at the beginning of the agitation, had, with the other Tories, been opposed to the change; but now, with his usual far-sightedness, he saw that the demand must be met or civil war would follow. The Duke of Wellington, who declared that he had seen enough of war in his time, and "would have nothing to do with civil war anyhow," changed his stand. The bill



*From the painting by Sir George Hayter.*

VICTORIA TAKING THE OATH.

bury and the Lord Chamberlain reached Kensington Palace with the news of the old king's death. After great effort they succeeded in gaining admission, but even then could hardly persuade the attendants to disturb the "sweet sleep" of the Princess. She did not keep them waiting, but came to them with a shawl thrown over her night clothes and her hair flowing about her shoulders.

went through both Houses, and the tumult was stopped. Thus all classes received the franchise, or voting privilege.

A few years afterwards, King William IV. died. The heir was a young girl, Victoria, the daughter of his brother, the Duke of Kent. The accession to the throne of this noble woman in 1837 was the beginning of a new era. This is the eleventh great date in English history.

At five in the morning the Archbishop of Canter-

Though only eighteen, she presided over the meeting of the council the next day with great self-possession and dignity that won the admiration of the old statesmen. Her tact and kindness gave her the love of the people—a love which she never lost, though she remained on the throne longer than any other ruler in English history.

England for a long time “protected” her farmers and manufacturers—that is, she placed duties on foreign goods brought into the country, so as to give all the profits of trade to Englishmen. Early in the century such high duties were placed on corn as to stop absolutely the importation of food stuffs. We must not give to the word “corn” the American meaning—Indian corn—for in England the word is applied to wheat, barley, rye, and other grain products. Until recently, Indian corn has been very little used in any European country.

England was a small country, and her population was rapidly increasing. In a good year the farmers might raise enough to supply all classes, but every year is not a good year. Too much rain or too little rain, too great heat or too much cold, and various other causes would diminish or even nearly destroy the crops. Then prices would be so high that the poor must go without bread; for no grain could be imported until the price of the home supply had reached a high figure.

A cry for a reduction in the price of corn began to be heard from the great towns. Naturally, the farmers and the landowners were anxious to keep out the foreign grains, and they fought against any change in the duties. They failed to see that what was for the good of the entire nation would be a help to them also. In time a change was made in the duties whereby, if the price of corn was low, the duty would be high, and if the home supply was short, the duty would be lowered. This helped in a measure, but even in a good year there was great suffering among the laboring classes.

A young man named Richard Cobden took up the cause of the starving thousands and began to work for the repeal of the corn laws. He had traveled much, and had thought more, and his winning manner made many friends. A beautiful story is told of how he gained the support of John Bright. Mr. Bright's young wife had just died, and he was bowed down with grief. Mr. Cobden called to express his sympathy, and suddenly said :

"There are hundreds and thousands of homes in England at this moment where wives and mothers and children are dying of hunger. Now, when the first paroxysm of your grief is passed, I would advise you to come with me, and we will never rest until the corn laws are repealed."

From that time the two worked together for the relief of the suffering.

When Robert Peel became prime minister of England, he fully expected to uphold the corn laws. He really believed in free trade, but he was not ready to apply it to agricultural products. He felt that if England must depend on other countries for her food, in time of war the people would be completely shut off from a food supply. There was much truth in this reasoning, but even in peace the farmers were unable to supply sufficient grain, and the people were starving. Laborers received only seven shillings a week ; and how could they provide their large families with food ? "Children would jump across the house if they saw a couple of potatoes, and quarrel which should have them." At one of the great meetings a laborer stood up, showing by his extreme thinness the truth of his words as he said : "I be protected, and I be starving."

The Irish, especially in the southern part of the island, lived almost wholly on potatoes, which were easily raised, required no storage (as they could be dug when needed), and were cheap. It is said that "whole generations grew up, lived, married, and passed away, without ever having tasted flesh meat." When it

was found, after a long season of rain and cloud, that the whole potato crop was spoiled, terrible suffering followed. The people died by hundreds of thousands, until whole villages were emptied and no one was left to bury the dead.

Sir Robert called his council together, showed them the condition of Ireland, and told them that the ports must be opened to the free admission of corn. They feared that if the ports were



AN ENGLISH COUNTRY HOME.

once opened they could not be closed, and refused to agree to his suggestion. Peel resigned, but the queen called him back to his office. "So far from taking leave of you, Sir Robert," she said, "I must require you to withdraw your resignation and remain in my service."

When the bill for the abolition of the corn laws came before Parliament, the fight was long and hard. After the bill had been presented by Sir Robert, Mr. Disraeli (Diz-rā'-lī), the leader of the Tories, made a stinging opposition speech, in which he held up Peel's changes of opinion to sarcastic ridicule. The

excitement was great and the opposition was determined, but the bill went through, and Peel won one of the greatest victories that had ever come to a statesman.

Peel did not live many years after this. One day, while he was riding, his horse shied, stumbled, and fell. He was thrown under the horse, and was so severely injured that he died in a few days.

In his speech, when he resigned his office of prime minister, Peel said :

"I shall leave a name execrated by every monopolist who, from less honorable motives, clamors for protection because it conduces to his own individual benefit ; but it may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in the abodes of those whose lot it is to earn their daily bread with the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

The whole nation, from the queen to the humblest laborer, mourned for him as for a friend. Even his political enemies acknowledged the great courage of the man who could put right before party, and agreed with the Duke of Wellington, who said :

"I have never known a man in whose truth and justice I had a more lively confidence, or in whom I saw a more invariable desire to promote the public service. . . . I never knew an instance in which he did not show the strongest attachment to truth. I never saw in the whole course of my life the smallest reason for suspecting that he stated anything that he did not fully believe to be the fact." At another time he called Sir Robert Peel "the truest man I have ever known."

Tell the story of the invention of calico-printing.

State what hopes Sir Robert Peel had for his boy, and how they affected his life.



Give an account of the public life of Sir Robert Peel ; his first reform ; his work for fairer representation ; his great victory.

Tell the story of the accession of Queen Victoria ; of Richard Cobden.

What were some of the characteristics of Robert Peel ? How does a man show great courage by acting contrary to the opinions of his party ? Is it a sign of weakness for a statesman to change his mind ? What is the tenth great date in English history ? Is it possible to make any law that will not burden some people ?



THE BIRTHPLACE OF SIR ROBERT PEEL, SR.



## CHAPTER XXVIII.

# William Ewart Gladstone.

1809-1898.

WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE was a friend and pupil of Sir Robert Peel. He held his first office under Peel, and had many of the characteristics of his master. Each had a father who had made a great fortune, and each was an able financier. Each entered Parliament at an early age; each was expected by his friends and associates to take a high place in the government of the nation, and each refused rank and honors from his sovereign. Gladstone, like Peel, began life as a Tory, and gradually changed his opinion on public questions. He, however, went much further than Peel, and became an extreme Liberal or Radical.

"Will Gladstone ever rise to the first place?" asked Bishop Wilberforce of Lord Aberdeen.

"Yes, I have no doubt he will," was the answer, "but gradually, after an interval. He must turn the hatred of many into affection first, and he *will* turn it if he has the opportunity given

him. Gladstone has some faults to overcome. He is too obstinate; he does not think enough of what others may think."

That he won the love of the people and the respect of his opponents is well shown by the name of "The Grand Old Man," given him in later years. He learned to heed other men's opinions. No one could be more easily approached; he would listen as carefully to the conversation of the simplest as of the most learned, for he felt that he could learn something from even the humblest person. He was always learning, always reading; his mind was like a vast storehouse where everything was packed away on its proper shelf. He could talk intelligently on any subject, and without a moment's notice could bring together facts and figures with perfect accuracy. Naturally he was always busy; not a moment was allowed to go to waste; every second was put to use. When debates dragged in the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone would place a pad on his knee and begin to write letters; yet he was always alert to what was going on about him. If a vote was to be taken, he was ready; if some one made a false statement or a misquotation, he stopped his writing and made an emphatic denial or correction.

As an orator he was unsurpassed. Even his speeches on financial matters "held the House spellbound." He "could make pippins and cheese interesting and tea serious." As a debator Gladstone hardly had an equal. Unlike his great opponent, Benjamin Disraeli, afterward Lord Beaconsfield, he never made use of epithets, but his flashing eye and eloquent words could accomplish more than ridicule and abuse.

An amusing story has been told by a member of the House of his attempt to criticise some act of the ministry. He said, "I had not gone on three minutes when Gladstone turned around and gazed at me so that I had to sit down in the middle of a sentence. I could not help it. There was no standing his eye."

Lord Coleridge once remarked that he "never feared but two

persons, Mr. Gladstone and Cardinal Newman ; but it was awe of their characteristics that inspired this fear, for no one could cite an instance in which either of them had forgotten his dignity or been betrayed into a discourteous word."

We have seen that in the time of Peel a bill had passed Parliament making the representation in the House of Commons more equal. This bill did not by any means give the voting privilege



THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

to the large mass of the English people, for only those who paid a certain rate of taxation received the suffrage. According to the opinion of many in the higher ranks of society, the common people "should have nothing to do with the laws but obey them." Once this theory would never have been questioned ; laborers were content to work, eat when they were hungry, sleep when they were tired, and obey their superiors. Now all the people were beginning to have an interest in public affairs and to think for themselves. They demanded the right to have a share in the

government and to say who should represent them. Mr. Gladstone, as leader of the House of Commons, in his speech supporting the bill to enlarge the franchise, said :

“ Liberty is a thing which is good not only in its fruits but in itself. Give to these persons new interests in the Constitution—new interests which by the beneficent workings of the laws of Nature and Providence shall beget in them new attachment to the Constitution ; for the attachment of the people to the throne and to the laws under which they live, is, after all, more than your gold and silver, more than your fleets and your armies ; at once the strength, the glory, and the safety of the land.”

This bill, which would have given the voting privilege to thousands, was voted down ; but the next year another bill, far more democratic than Gladstone's bill, was brought in by Disraeli, the Tory leader, who had before been in opposition. The supporters of the old bill had to support this one, which, after being made even more liberal, passed both Houses. The voting privilege was given to all householders and all lodgers in the towns who paid ten pounds rent and had lived in the same lodgings for a year.

One reason for the increased interest of the working people in governmental matters was the cheapness of the newspapers. News sheets had been published in England since early in the seventeenth century. They appeared then at irregular intervals, but after a time an advertisement was printed in “ The Certain News of this Present Week,” stating that the author proposed to “ continue ” this “ manner of writing and printing . . . weekly by God's assistance from the best and most certain intelligence.” As time went on papers began to multiply, but it was not until the reign of Queen Anne that they exerted much influence on the minds of the people.

The government began to fear the power of newspapers. In the attempt to limit their sale, a stamp of half a penny was

required to be placed on every paper sold. This tax was increased again and again, until every paper printed brought to the government fourpence, a sum equal to eight cents of our money. This was not the only revenue that came into the national treasury from the newspapers. Every advertisement was taxed a sixpence. Mr. McCarthy, in his "Story of Gladstone's Life," tells how an official went to the office of a news-



"LONDON'S GAZETTE  
HERE."

A newswoman of 1700.

paper about midnight before it went to press, asked for a copy, and marked with a pencil every item that he considered an advertisement. His ideas and those of the editor did not always agree. Often a bit of news, as the announcement that a certain member of Parliament would make an address the next week, would be marked for the tax. When the editor urged that it was only a piece of news, the official replied: "News me no news," and "marked it down with a sixpenny tax." Besides, there was a heavy duty on all printing materials.

Naturally, if a man started out in the newspaper business, he required a large capital, and it was impossible to place low prices on the paper. Later, a part of the tax was taken away, but still the price was too high to bring newspapers into the hands of the workingman. Yet many were eager enough for news to club together and take a paper, which was circulated with the understanding that the subscriber who got the paper last should be entitled to keep it.

Mr. Gladstone proposed a bill to remove these taxes, but it was fiercely contested. The newspapers themselves fought against it. Many thought that if all the people could have a paper, the nation, the church, and all right and truth would be



at an end. In time the bill was passed, however, and the price of papers fell to a penny, which brought them within the reach of all.

The next step in giving better education to the working people was to improve the schools. In olden times no one expected to go to school unless he was a knight, or was to become a monk. The knight was taught how to shoot well with bow and arrow, and how to write verses to his lady, while the monk learned to dispute about subjects that never would or could be of use to anybody. After the "Revival of Learning," good schools and colleges were endowed. At first the grammar schools were free, but later only the wealthy people sent their children to them. Private schools for workingmen's children were taught by men and women often as a last resort to keep a roof over their heads. The teachers had little education themselves, and frequently had a bad character. A small fee was charged, and the instruction was confined to reading, writing, and sewing.

George Crabbe (Krab) thus describes a Dame School of the last part of the eighteenth century :

"Where a deaf, poor, patient widow sits  
And awes some thirty infants as she knits.  
Her room is small, they cannot widely stray ;  
Her threshold high, they cannot run away.  
Though deaf, she sees the rebel-hearers shout ;  
Though lame, her white rod nimbly walks about.  
With band of yarn she keep offenders in,  
And to her gown the sturdiest rogue can pin.  
Aided by these, and spells, and tell-tale birds,  
Her power they dread, and reverence her words."

The schools for older children were little better. They were noisy, the rooms were dark, unhealthy, and poorly furnished, and

the teaching was poor. Under such circumstances children learned but little. If they could read the Bible and say the catechism, their education was complete. Robert of Gloucester, many hundred years ago, said in quaint language, "Vor the more that a man con [knows] the more worth he ys;" but the general opinion was that "there is a risk of elevating those who are doomed to the drudgery of daily labor above their station; and rendering them unhappy and discontented with their lot." Of course some improvements were made as years went by, but the government had no authority and furnished no funds for schools of any kind, except a small sum for the help of private charity schools.

An act establishing a system of national education was passed during Gladstone's first period as prime minister. All children are now required to attend school between the ages of five and fourteen. In America we would hardly call even the new schools free, for every parent who is able must pay a fee for each child. However, there is a fund that pays the tuition of children too poor to pay the fee, and thus all receive the benefit of the improved schools.

"The schoolmaster is abroad," said Lord Brougham (Broo'-am), "and I trust more to the schoolmaster armed with his primer, than to the soldier in full military array, for upholding and extending the liberties of my country."

During the latter part of his life Gladstone became a warm friend of the Irish, and though an old man, he took up their cause with great earnestness. Whatever he undertook, he did not leave half done. He always followed the advice he gave to some school-boys: "If you run, you ought always to run as fast as you can; and if you jump, you ought always to jump as far as you can." Many of his old friends deserted him; they and the nation were not ready to go so far as he would. His motion to give the Irish their great desire, Home Rule, was voted down, and he resigned

his position. The prime minister remains in office as long as Parliament supports the bills that he presents. When the House refuses to carry out his plans, he considers that the vote is an indication that he no longer holds the confidence of the majority of the English people, and he resigns. Gladstone, therefore, retired from office, but not from work. Only death could stop his active interest in public affairs.



HAWARDEN CASTLE.

Gladstone's favorite exercise was felling trees. His opponents used to say, "That is Gladstone all over, to cut down something that he can never cause to grow again; there is his one chief idea of statesmanship." They were wrong. He never cut down a tree unless it was rotten or there was some other good cause, and he never deserted an old position simply for the sake of a change. His reply to some Lancaster workmen well illustrates this.

People were constantly visiting his home in Wales, Hawarden (Har'-den) Park, and with the usual thoughtlessness would break

off twigs from the trees or tear down portions of the old castle to carry away as souvenirs. A holiday party from Lancaster had been tearing branches from a beech-tree, and Mr. Gladstone took them to task. "We are very proud of our trees," he said, "and are therefore getting anxious, as the beech has already shown symptoms of decay. We set great store by our trees."

"Why, then, do you cut them down?" asked one of the men.

"We cut down that we may improve. We remove rottenness that we may restore health by letting in air and light. As a good Liberal, you ought to understand that."

Gladstone's tenderness of heart was well known. As a boy he befriended the pigs that other schoolboys were tormenting, and when a man he never could see distress without desiring to help. An interesting story is told of a carter who was jogging along one day with a load of iron, when a stranger came up and began to talk with him, inquiring about his work and how much he was able to make for carrying each ton. At last they came to a steep hill, and the stranger asked:

"How are you going to get up this hill?"

"Oh, I mun get me shuder and push up here."

"I'll help you a bit," was the reply, and the stranger also put his shoulder to the load and pushed up the hill.

When they reached the top the carter said, "You and me's been as good as a chain-horse."

"Well, well," said the stranger, "I don't know how the horse's legs are, but mine ache very much, indeed. I suppose you can manage now?"

The stranger was Mr. Gladstone, as the carter soon learned to his great astonishment.

"Mr. Gladstone!" he exclaimed. "I don't know what he'll think of me, then, for I never sir'd him or nothin'. I thought he was some farmer."

Gladstone was once standing in a certain part of the House of

Parliament that formed a whispering gallery. Many visitors were present that day, among them a young shoemaker and his sweetheart. They were quietly whispering together, wholly unaware that every word could be distinctly heard on the other side of the room. It appeared that they had expected to be married soon, but the shoemaker's business was poor, and the wedding had been postponed. Mr. Gladstone hunted up the shop, by inquiry found out the owner's character, and gave him an order. As the work was satisfactory, he persuaded some of his friends to employ this shoemaker, and soon the man had more work than he could do. Mr. Gladstone was the busiest and hardest-worked man in England, but he could always find time for one more kindness.

Three kings of England have each ruled more than fifty years, Henry III., Edward III., and George III.

Queen Victoria celebrated not only her fiftieth, but her sixtieth year as queen, and died in the first month of the twentieth century, after reigning more than sixty-three years. She was succeeded by her oldest son, Edward VII. On her fiftieth anniversary Mr. Gladstone contrasted her jubilee with the jubilee of George the Third. "His was a jubilee of the great folks, a jubilee of the upper classes;" Victoria's was that of the whole people. "The population are better represented, are more free,



QUEEN VICTORIA.

have fewer criminals, are better fed, better clothed, and better housed, and that by a great deal, than they were fifty years ago; and the great mass of these happy and blessed changes is associated with the name and action of the queen."

Gladstone was right. Queen Victoria's influence was always for justice and truth. But as much credit is due to two great statesmen who dared to go contrary to the opinions of their friends in order to make a whole nation free and prosperous.

Tell how Gladstone resembled Sir Robert Peel.

Describe Gladstone's character; his active life; his kindness of heart.

Give an account of the Suffrage Reform Bill.

Tell the story of the growth and the trials of the newspapers.

Describe the English schools.

Contrast the reigns of George III. and Victoria.

If Robert Peel "refused rank and honor from his sovereign," how then did he become Sir Robert Peel? What statesman did Gladstone resemble in his ability to control the House by his eloquence? What were some of the reasons for the increased interest of the people in public affairs? What is meant by "democratic"? Why should the newspapers fight against the repeal of the tax on them? Why are those nations the happiest and most prosperous whose people are educated and free?



*From a print of 1860.*

WINDSOR CASTLE.





## CHAPTER XXIX.

# Cecil Rhodes.

1853-1902.

WE must not forget that England is a very small part of the British Empire. The islands that form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland are less than one-ninetieth part of the whole empire. English possessions, colonies they are called, are in all sections of the world—in Asia, Africa, North and South America, Australia, and among the islands of the seas. In fact, England owns more than one-fifth of the land surface of the earth. To keep these scattered lands from the greedy clutch of other nations she supports the largest navy in the world, for all the European states are jealous of her influence and prosperity, and would try to humble her if they dared.

These colonies, which have produced so much wealth and, perhaps, more trouble and perplexities, have come to England in different ways—some by exploration, some by conquest, some by unjust seizure, and some by treaties with the natives. We have already seen how Englishmen won India, and their influ-

ence has extended over province after province until not only the Indian peninsula, but portions of Indo-China, or Farther India, and Baluchistan are under British control. Here the Anglo-Saxons, mostly government and army officials, merchants and planters, are a very small part of the population.

The better class of the inhabitants of India are intelligent, educated, and cultured ; but the lower classes are degraded and superstitious. Living closely packed together in some provinces, the poor suffer at times from long-continued famines. Native wealth is seldom used to relieve their distress, because they are considered an inferior caste, of whom the world might well be rid. A native prince will spend thousands of rupees to feed his sacred crocodiles, but not one to help his starving subjects. During recent years millions of people have been kept alive by English, American, and European bounty. India is now governed liberally and wisely ; the people are not compelled to give up their old religious beliefs, though the cruelties connected with them have been stopped by law. They have been brought under the influence of a better and kinder civilization, and life means more to them.

The conditions in Australia are far different. There the population is largely English, and the natives, who are degraded savages, are fast dying out. The development of Australia is one of the most wonderful in the history of the world ; in sixty years it has grown from a penal colony to a populous and enlightened commonwealth. It is not known when the continent was discovered, but probably some time early in the sixteenth century, though its size and shape remained in doubt for nearly two hundred years afterward. Captain William Dampier (Dămp'peer), who visited it late in the seventeenth century, reported : "It is a very large tract of land. It is not yet determined whether it is an island or a main continent ; but I am certain that it joins neither Asia, Africa, nor America."

The first colony was settled in New South Wales late in the eighteenth century, but the success of these early settlers would not tempt other colonists. Most discouraging reports were sent to England. They said: "In the whole world there is not a worse country that we have seen than this"; "the country contains less resources than any other in the known world"; and it "is incapable of yielding to Great Britain a return for colonizing it"; and again, "if a favorable picture has been drawn, it is a gross falsehood and a base deception." England, accepting these statements, made of Australia a penal colony, where were sent all the criminals and wrongdoers that the courts did not like to hang and knew not how else to dispose of.

Naturally a colony presented few attractions for settlers when its population was sarcastically called—

"True patriots all; for, be it understood,  
We left our country for our country's good."

Of course England expected her bad children to reform in the new land and to become law-abiding citizens, but, freed from all the restraints of civilization, they grew worse rather than better. Not until stockmen discovered that Australia was a good country for sheep and cattle raising did a better class of colonists arrive.

About the middle of the century a wandering miner from California reported that he had found gold in the mountains of New South Wales, now Victoria. A few months later gold was discovered in another place, and soon after in another. People began to think that Australia was not such a worthless place after all, and thousands from all the countries of the world flocked to the southern continent. "Victoria, in a night as it were, was lifted from being an unconsidered nook in an out-of-the-way wilderness, to become a nation among nations and a power in the world." It is said that ten thousand persons a

week arrived at Melbourne. "Have you been to the diggings?" "Are you going?" was asked of every newcomer.

After the first excitement over the gold findings died out, Australia settled down to a quieter life. Other mineral wealth



AN AUSTRALIAN SHEEP FARM.

was discovered ; South Australia was found to be a good wheat-producing region ; New South Wales introduced manufactures. For years the Australians have been agitating a union or federation of the six separate colonies, believing that the interests of the continent would be better cared for if all sections were united. A constitution similar to that of the United States was adopted

in Australia, approved by England, and went into operation on the first day of the twentieth century. Under it, the Home Government appoints a Governor-General, but in all other respects Australia is absolutely independent. The people elect their own legislature, regulate their own tariff, levy their own taxes, and have their own courts. "For the first time in the world's history there will be a nation for a continent and a continent for a nation."

In a poem published in the "London Times," Rudyard Kipling has beautifully pictured the birth of this new nation :

"Her hand still on her sword-hilt, the spur still on her heel,  
She had not cast her harness of gray, war-dented steel ;  
High on her red-splashed charger, beautiful, bold and browned,  
Bright-eyed out of the battle, the young Queen rode to be crowned.

And she came to the old Queen's presence, in the hall of our thousand  
years,

To the hall of five free nations that are peers among their peers ;  
Royal she gave the greeting, loyal she bowed the head,  
Crying, 'Crown me, my mother !' and the old Queen stood and said :

· · · · ·  
'I have swayed troublous councils—(I am wise in terrible things)  
Father and son and grandson, I have known the heart of the kings.  
Shall I give thee my sleepless wisdom, or the gift all wisdom above ?  
Ay, we be women together—I give thee thy people's love !

'Tempered, august, abiding, reluctant of prayers or vows,  
Eager in face of peril, as theirs for their mother's house—  
God requite thee, my daughter, through the strenuous years to be,  
And make thy people to love thee as thou hast loved me !' "

At the opposite end of the world from Australia is the largest of the English colonies, British America, or the Dominion of Canada. A large part of British America lies within or close

to the Arctic circle, and is sparsely populated. The winters are long, and the climate is severely cold; yet this section is by no means valueless. The Klondike region, near the boundaries of Alaska, is rich in gold deposits; extensive forests cover the unsettled districts, and large quantities of furs are annually exported by the Hudson Bay Company. The climate of the southern part of Canada is much like that of the northern part of the United States. The land is very productive; the highest-priced wheat is raised on the prairies of Manitoba, and the fisheries of the Dominion are the most important in the world.

Canada came into the possession of the British Government at the close of the French and Indian War. As it was originally a province of France, the population in some sections is largely French. At times they grumble, but on the whole they are as loyal to England as are those of English birth. Canada, like Australia, is practically independent. The Home Government in England appoints a Governor-General, the people elect their own premier and Parliament, and each province takes care of its local affairs.

The colony that has held the attention of the world during the last year of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth is South Africa. English rule, which was originally limited to the Dutch settlement of Cape Colony, has gradually extended over a continuous strip of land from the Cape of Good Hope north through the "dark continent" nearly to Nubia and Egypt, which are also under English control.

This growth of power has been due not only to the natural results of English enterprise, but largely to the faith, the energy, and the genius of Cecil Rhodes, who, it has been said, thought in continents, while some men think in nations, and most in parishes. Probably few men of this generation have been more admired or condemned. A large part of the public thinks that he was grasping, unscrupulous, cruel, and selfish; all admit that he had



great ability. He thoroughly believed that English rule meant freedom and justice to all classes of people, and he put forth every effort to bring as large a part of Africa as possible under English control. One day he was found studying a map of Africa. "That is my dream," he said, running his finger over the map to the Zambezi (Zam-bā'ze) River, "all English."



THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

“Some men have a fancy for this thing, some for that thing, but you have a fancy for making an empire,” once remarked a friend.

When a young man, Mr. Rhodes was obliged to leave Oxford University and go to South Africa for his health. He went to the newly discovered diamond fields and began work on a claim. The pure air of the interior made him well and his success made him rich. At first he sat patiently day by day before his table

sorting the diamonds that the Kaffirs (Kǎf'-fers) had found in the mine; and before he was thirty he was the head of the company that owned the valuable diamond mines at Kimberley. The people at work about him called him "eccentric and a dreamer." Perhaps he was, for he did what few men would have done: he went back to Oxford and completed his college course, spending the vacation periods in Africa looking after his mining interests.

One day an old man and a young man were traveling from the Cape to Kimberley in a cart. The oxen were slow and the journey required many days. The young man spent the time studying a book, which aroused the old man's curiosity; but he was an Englishman, and he had not been introduced. Two days passed before he asked what book the young man was reading. After that the journey was no longer lonesome. The young man was Cecil Rhodes, and he was studying the "Thirty-nine Articles," preparing for his next examination at Oxford.

When General Gordon was in Southern Africa, he and Cecil Rhodes became great friends. Gordon, though he did not agree with Rhodes in all matters, greatly admired and trusted him. If Rhodes had been the wholly selfish man that many think him, this close friendship could not have been. Gordon begged Rhodes to remain with him in Basutoland (Ba-sū'-tō-lānd). "Stay with me," he said. "We can work together." When Rhodes refused, Gordon replied: "There are very few men in the world to whom I would make such an offer. Very few men, I can tell you; but, of course, you *will* have your own way."

The difference in the characters of the two men is shown in this story that is told of them. After General Gordon had put down a rebellion in China, the Chinese Government offered him a roomful of gold. He was telling Rhodes about it one day.

"What did you do?" asked Rhodes.

"Refused it, of course," replied Gordon. "What would you have done?"

"I would have taken it and as many more roomfuls as they would have given me. It is no use for us to have big ideas if we have not the money to carry them out."

Yet Mr. Rhodes did not want money for itself, but for what he could do with it. He spent little on himself and condemned



OPEN WORKINGS IN THE KIMBERLEY DIAMOND MINES.

other millionaires whose sole wish is to leave a fortune for their children. "Give your boys the best education you can and then let them make their own way. As for any money you may have, it should all go to the public service." Such was Mr. Rhodes's opinion of the way wealth should be used. With his he built railroads and telegraph and telephone lines, helped to put down

the slave trade, and aided the stockmen with his experiments in cattle raising. One of his desires was to connect Cairo with Cape Town by railroad, and over two thousand of the three thousand seven hundred miles are nearly completed. When this line is finished, Africa will soon cease to be the "dark continent," for the telegraph and the railroad are "the advance guard of civilization."

The Dutch form the largest part of the European population in South Africa. They are not progressive, and have frequently had conflicts with the English. Mr. Rhodes did much to bring together these two nationalities, and for this reason has been called "the Englishman with the Africander heart." His skill, however, was not sufficient to keep them at peace; but perhaps it was not always asked for. He said that the Boer (Bōor) war could have been prevented.

Completely surrounded by English territory were two independent Dutch Republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal (Trāns-vāl'). The inhabitants, who are mostly stockmen, retain the customs of their ancestors, and hate the English, who more than once have driven them from their farms farther on into the wilderness. A few years ago gold was discovered in great quantities near Johannesburg (Yō-han'-nēs-burg), the capital of the Transvaal. Immediately thousands hastened to the new gold fields, and the foreigners, or Uitlanders, became the larger part of the population. Everything was done to make their condition as hard as possible; they were heavily taxed, exorbitant prices were placed upon all their supplies, and they had no share in the government. England tried to persuade the Boer Government to lessen the hardships of the Uitlanders, who were mostly Englishmen, but the negotiators were sent away by President Krüger with the message, "Go back and tell your people I will never give them anything. I will never change my policy. Now let the storm burst!" Mistakes followed mistakes on each

side. Neither people were free from wrongdoing, and at last the storm burst. A long and disastrous guerilla war followed. The Boers are hard fighters, and the English find that modern methods of warfare are almost useless in a country cut up by hills and other irregularities of surface. England has proclaimed that the Transvaal and the Orange Free State are British territory; but the conquest has been at the expense of thousands of lives, millions of pounds of money, and terrible distress and suffering.



KING EDWARD VII. AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

When the war broke out Mr. Rhodes went to Kimberley, which is close to the border of the Transvaal. It was a courageous act, for the Boers hated him intensely. Once before, during the terrible Matabele (Māt'-a-bēl') insurrection, he did not hesitate to

go into the enemy's country. The English troops were unable to bring the war to a close, and Rhodes offered to try what he could do. He went to the camp of the enemy among the mountains, and walked into the hut of the leading chief where a council was being held. After a little discussion he asked suddenly, "Is it peace or war?" The chief lifted a stick, threw it down at Rhodes's feet, exclaiming; "This is my gun. I throw it at your feet." The other chiefs one by one followed his example.

Then, after Rhodes had talked over the situation with them, the head chief said: "It is good, my father. You have trusted us and we have spoken. We are all here to-day and our voice is the voice of the nation. We are the mouths and ears of the people. We give you one word. It is peace. The war is over. We will not break our word."

The question in the minds of many thinking people in England as well as in the colonies is, "What will be the future of the various English colonies?" Their connection with the Home Government is very slight; they are almost independent. Can they remain as they are, or must there be some closer bond between them to keep them from becoming separate nations? As yet they are loyal, as has been shown by the Boer war. Unasked, Canada and Australia fitted out and sent to Africa regiments of soldiers to help the English armies. This may be the beginning of the closer federation which Cecil Rhodes desired to bring about. Then each colony will send representatives to the Parliament at London, and all will unite in a common cause and a common interest.

Contrast the inhabitants of the various English colonies.

Describe the growth and development of Australia.

Tell the story of the life of Cecil Rhodes: his ambition; his successes; his statesmanship; his courage.

Give an account of the troubles between the Dutch and the English in South Africa.

State what many hope will be the future of the English colonies.



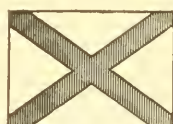
Does a large army or a large navy keep a country free from the attacks of other nations? Why have not Englishmen settled in India as they have in the other colonies? Why are the poor and the unfortunate better taken care of in a civilized than in an uncivilized country? If Australia could not support a small colony in the eighteenth century, how is it that now a large population can live there? What are the six colonies of Australia? Can men of absolutely unlike characters be close friends? Do people criticise men because they have money, or because of the way in which they use it? Are Mr. Rhodes's ideas right? Why are the railroads and the telegraphs the advance guards of civilization? Is it necessary for families and nations to have a common interest to hold them together?



ENGLAND.



SCOTLAND.



IRELAND.



GREAT BRITAIN.

GREAT BRITAIN AND  
IRELAND.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE UNION FLAG.



## Chronology of Events in English History.

- B.C. 55** Cæsar's first expedition to Britain.
- 54** Cæsar's second expedition to Britain.
- A.D. 43** Beginning of the real conquest of Britain by the Romans.
- 50** Caradoc carried captive to Rome.
- 81-85** Agricola's wall built from the Frith of Forth to the Frith of Clyde.
- 121** Hadrian's wall built from the Tyne to the Frith of Solway.
- 410** Romans abandon Britain.  
Picts and Scots invade England.
- 449** Hengist and Horsa land on the Isle of Thanet.
- 495** Cerdic founds the kingdom of Wessex.
- 520** King Arthur checks the Saxons.
- 547** The Angles settle Northumbria.
- 590** Ethelbert becomes king of Kent.
- 597** St. Augustine arrives in England.
- 627** Northumbria converted to Christianity.
- 735** Death of Bæda.
- 789** Danes first invade England.
- 828** Egbert becomes the first king of England.
- 837** Ethelwulf succeeds his father Egbert.
- 871** The Danes defeated by Ethelred and Alfred.  
Alfred succeeds his brother Ethelred.
- 878** The Danes conquer Wessex.  
Treaty of Wedmore.
- 880-893** A period of peace.
- 901** Death of Alfred.  
Edward succeeds his father Alfred.
- 1013** Swegen conquers England and becomes king.

- 1016** Canute elected king.
- 1042** Edward the Confessor becomes king.
- 1049** Westminster Abbey begun.
- 1066** Harold becomes king.  
 William of Normandy claims the throne.  
 Battle of Stamford Bridge, September 25.  
 William lands at Pevensey, September 28.  
 Battle of Hastings, October 14.  
 Death of Harold, the last Saxon king.  
**William I., the Conqueror**, crowned king of England, December 25.
- 1071** The English finally defeated by William at Ely.
- 1086** Domesday Book completed. It included a census and lists of property in nearly all parts of England outside of London.
- 1087** **William Rufus** succeeds his father.
- 1100** **Henry I.** secures the throne.  
 "The first charter of liberties" issued. This charter limited the power of the king, and granted various rights to the people.
- 1120** Loss of the *White Ship*.
- 1128** Matilda married to Geoffrey of Anjou.
- 1134** Birth of Henry Plantagenet.
- 1135** Death of Henry I.  
**Stephen**, Count of Blois, seizes the throne.
- 1138-1153** Civil war.
- 1153** Treaty of Wallingford. Henry Plantagenet acknowledged as heir to the throne.
- 1154** **Henry II.** becomes king of England.  
 Complete union of English and Norman elements.
- 1157** Ireland given to England by Pope Adrian IV.
- 1162** Thomas à Becket becomes Archbishop of Canterbury.
- 1164** Quarrel between Becket and Henry II.  
 Constitutions of Clarendon.
- 1170** Becket murdered.

- 1171** Henry II. makes an expedition to Ireland.  
**1172** Henry makes a pilgrimage to Becket's tomb.  
**1183** Henry's sons rebel.  
**1189** Death of Henry II.  
    **Richard I.** succeeds his father.  
    Charters granted to several towns.  
    Richard I. goes on the third crusade.  
**1194** War with Philip of France.  
**1199** **John** succeeds his brother.  
**1203** Death of Arthur of Brittany.  
**1204** Loss of most of the English possessions in France.  
**1207** Stephen Langton elected Archbishop of Canterbury.  
**1209** John excommunicated by the Pope.  
**1213** John becomes the Pope's vassal.  
**1215** John signs Magna Carta, June 15.  
    The barons offer the crown to Louis of France.  
**1216** **Henry III.** succeeds his father.  
**1263** Beginning of the Barons' War.  
**1264** Battle of Lewes.  
    Merton College, Oxford, founded.  
**1265** First Meeting of the House of Commons, January 20.  
    Battle of Evesham.  
    Death of Simon de Montfort, August 4.  
**1272** **Edward I.** succeeds his father.  
**1282** Insurrection of Llewelyn of Wales.  
**1284** Wales annexed to England.  
    Birth of the first Prince of Wales.  
**1292** Baliol becomes king of Scotland.  
**1295** Parliament first meets in two separate bodies, the House  
    of Lords and the House of Commons.  
**1297** Revolt of Sir William Wallace.  
**1306** Robert Bruce crowned king of Scotland.  
**1307** **Edward II.** succeeds his father.  
**1314** Battle of Bannockburn.  
**1327** Edward II. deposed.

- 1327** **Edward III.** succeeds his father.
- 1331** Woollen manufactures introduced into England.
- 1337** Edward III. claims the crown of France.
- 1346** Battle of Crécy.
- 1347** Calais captured by the English.
- 1348-1349** The Black Death.  
Discontent of laborers and passage of Statute of Laborers,  
regulating the price of labor.
- 1356** Battle of Poitiers.
- 1360** Treaty of Brétigny.
- 1376** Death of the Black Prince.
- 1377** **Richard II.**, son of the Black Prince, succeeds his  
grandfather.
- 1381** Wycliffe translates the Bible into English.  
Wat Tyler's insurrection.
- 1386(?)** Chaucer writes the Canterbury Tales.
- 1399** Richard II. deposed.  
**Henry IV.** crowned.
- 1413** **Henry V.** succeeds his father.
- 1415** Battle of Agincourt, October 25.
- 1420** Peace of Troyes.  
Henry marries Catherine of France and becomes heir to  
the throne.
- 1422** **Henry VI.** succeeds his father.
- 1428** Siege of Orleans.
- 1431** Death of Joan of Arc.
- 1453** End of the Hundred Years' War.  
French possessions, except Calais, lost.
- 1455** Beginning of the Wars of the Roses.
- 1461** **Edward IV.** succeeds Henry VI.
- 1471** Death of the Earl of Warwick.  
Death of Henry VI.
- 1476(?)** Caxton sets up the first printing press in England.
- 1483** **Edward V.** succeeds his father.  
Edward V. and his brother murdered in the Tower.



- 1483** **Richard III.** crowned.  
**1485** Battle of Bosworth Field.  
**Henry VII.** crowned.  
End of the Wars of the Roses.  
**1497** John Cabot discovers the North American mainland.  
**1499** Beginning of the "Revival of Learning."  
**1509** **Henry VIII.** succeeds his father.  
**1515** Thomas Wolsey becomes Cardinal and Chancellor.  
**1520** Field of the Cloth of Gold.  
**1530** Death of Wolsey.  
**1534** Henry VIII. declared to be the Supreme Head of the English Church.  
**1547** **Edward VI.** succeeds his father.  
**1549** First English Prayer Book.  
**1552-1553** Grammar schools and hospitals founded.  
**1553** **Mary** crowned.  
**1555** Persecutions of Protestants.  
**1558** Calais captured by the French.  
**Elizabeth** succeeds Mary.  
**1559** Protestantism restored.  
**1562** Sir John Hawkins begins the slave trade.  
**1577** Sir Francis Drake sails round the world.  
**1584** Raleigh sends colonists to Virginia.  
**1586 (?)** Shakespeare goes to London.  
**1588** Defeat of the Spanish Armada.  
**1590** Spencer's "Faerie Queen" published.  
**1600** East India Company chartered.  
**1603** **James I.** crowned.  
**1607** Jamestown, Virginia, settled.  
**1611** "King James" translation of the Bible completed.  
**1616** Death of Shakespeare.  
**1620** Harvey discovers circulation of the blood.  
Plymouth settled by Pilgrims.  
**1622** First periodical newspaper published.  
**1625** **Charles I.** succeeds his father.

- 1626** A forced loan demanded.
- 1627** John Hampden imprisoned for refusing to lend to the king.
- 1628** The "Petition of Right" passed, prohibiting taxation without the consent of Parliament, and the imprisonment of any person except under a direct charge.
- 1637** Hampden tried for refusing to pay ship money.
- 1640** The Long Parliament meets.
- 1641** Earl of Strafford executed.
- 1642** Charles I. demands the imprisonment of five members of Parliament.  
         Battle of Edgehill.  
         Death of Hampden.
- 1644** Battle of Marston Moor.
- 1645** Self-denying Ordinance passed.  
         Battle of Naseby, June 14.
- 1646** Charles I. taken prisoner.
- 1647** Charles I. makes a treaty with the Scots.
- 1648** "Pride's Purge," December 6-7.  
         The Rump Parliament.
- 1649** Trial of the king, January 20-27.  
         Execution of Charles I., January 30.
- 1649-1660** The Commonwealth.
- 1649** House of Lords abolished.  
         Revolt against Cromwell in Ireland.  
         Charles II. proclaimed king in Scotland.  
         Cromwell appointed commander general.
- 1651** Charles totally defeated in the battle of Worcester.
- 1652** War with the Dutch.
- 1653** Cromwell dissolves the Rump Parliament.  
         "Barebone's Parliament."  
         Cromwell appointed Lord Protector, December 16.
- 1656-1659** War with Spain.
- 1657** Cromwell offered the title of king.
- 1658** Death of Cromwell.

- 1658** Richard Cromwell succeeds his father.  
**1659** Richard Cromwell resigns.  
**1660** General Monk enters London.  
**Charles II.** invited to return.  
**1662** The Royal Society founded.  
**1665** The Great Plague.  
**1666** The great London fire.  
**1667** Milton publishes "Paradise Lost."  
**1670** Bunyan writes "Pilgrim's Progress."  
**1679** The Habeas Corpus Act passed. Its purpose was to protect against unjust imprisonment.  
**1685** **James II.** succeeds his brother.  
Battle of Sedgemoor, the last battle fought on English soil.  
**1687** Newton makes known his Law of Gravitation.  
**1689** Bill of Rights passed.  
**William and Mary** crowned.  
**1694** Death of Queen Mary.  
**1695** Severe laws passed against the Roman Catholics.  
**1702** **Anne** succeeds William III.  
**1703** First daily newspaper.  
**1707** Union of English and Scotch Parliaments.  
**1714** **George I.** crowned.  
**1715** Rebellion in Scotland under the Old Pretender.  
**1719** De Foe publishes "Robinson Crusoe."  
**1722** Robert Walpole becomes the first Prime Minister.  
**1727** **George II.** succeeds his father.  
**1738** Rise of Methodism.  
**1745** Rebellion in Scotland under the Young Pretender.  
**1746** The Young Pretender defeated at Culloden.  
**1751** Robert Clive captures Arcot.  
**1752** New style of computing time introduced.  
**1756** Beginning of the Seven Years' War with France.  
The massacre at Calcutta.  
**1757** Battle of Plassey.

- 1757** William Pitt becomes Secretary of State.
- 1759** Victory of Wolfe at Quebec.
- 1760** **George III.** crowned.
- 1763** Peace of Paris. Canada acquired by England.
- 1764** Hargreaves invents the spinning jenny.
- 1765** Stamp Act passed.  
Isaac Watts invents his steam engine.
- 1768** Arkwright invents the spinning machine.
- 1773** The Boston Tea Party.
- 1775** Beginning of the American Revolution.
- 1776** Declaration of Independence.
- 1778** Roman Catholic Relief Act passed.  
War with France.
- 1782** Defeat of Cornwallis at Yorktown.
- 1783** Independence of the United States acknowledged.
- 1787** First convicts sent to Australia.
- 1801** Irish Parliament abolished.
- 1805** War with France.  
Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1807** Slave trade abolished.
- 1809-1814** Sir Arthur Wellesley's campaign in the Spanish Peninsular.
- 1812-1814** War with the United States.
- 1815** England gains possessions in South Africa.  
Battle of Waterloo.
- 1820** **George IV.** succeeds his father.
- 1824** Capital punishment restricted.
- 1826** First temperance society formed.
- 1829** New police system in London.  
Catholic Emancipation Act.
- 1830** Stephenson invents first successful locomotive.
- 1832** First Suffrage Reform Bill passed.
- 1833** Slaves emancipated in the colonies.  
First Factory Act.
- 1834** Robert Peel becomes Prime Minister.

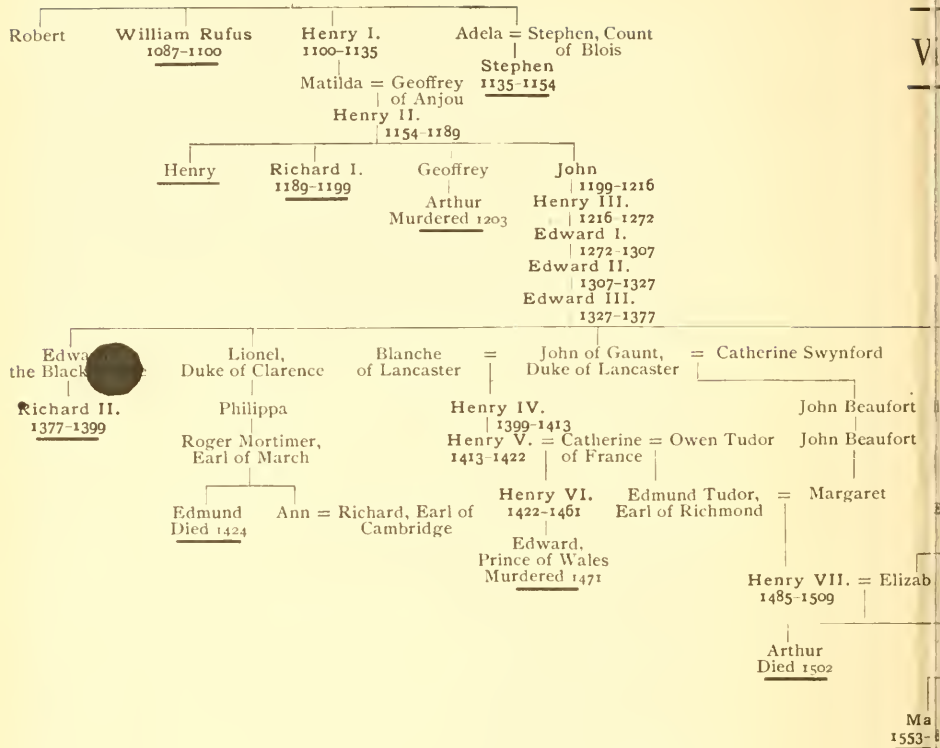
- 1837** **William IV.** succeeds his brother.  
**Victoria** crowned.  
Hanover becomes a separate kingdom.  
Criminal laws reformed.
- 1840** Penny postage introduced.
- 1842** Chimney Sweep Act.
- 1846** Irish famine.  
Repeal of Corn Laws.  
Ether first used.
- 1852** Death of Duke of Wellington.
- 1854-1856** Crimean War.
- 1855** Newspaper tax repealed.  
First cheap newspaper.
- 1857** Jews admitted to Parliament.
- 1858** First Atlantic cable.
- 1867** Second Suffrage Reform Act.
- 1868** Imprisonment for debt abolished.  
Mr. Gladstone becomes Prime Minister.  
Suez Canal opened.
- 1870** National Education Act.  
First Irish Land Act.
- 1876** Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.
- 1879** The Irish Land League.
- 1881** Second Irish Land Act.
- 1887** Queen's Jubilee.
- 1897** The Diamond Jubilee.
- 1900** War with Boers in South Africa.  
Australian Federation.
- 1901** Death of Queen Victoria.  
**Edward VII.** succeeds to the throne.





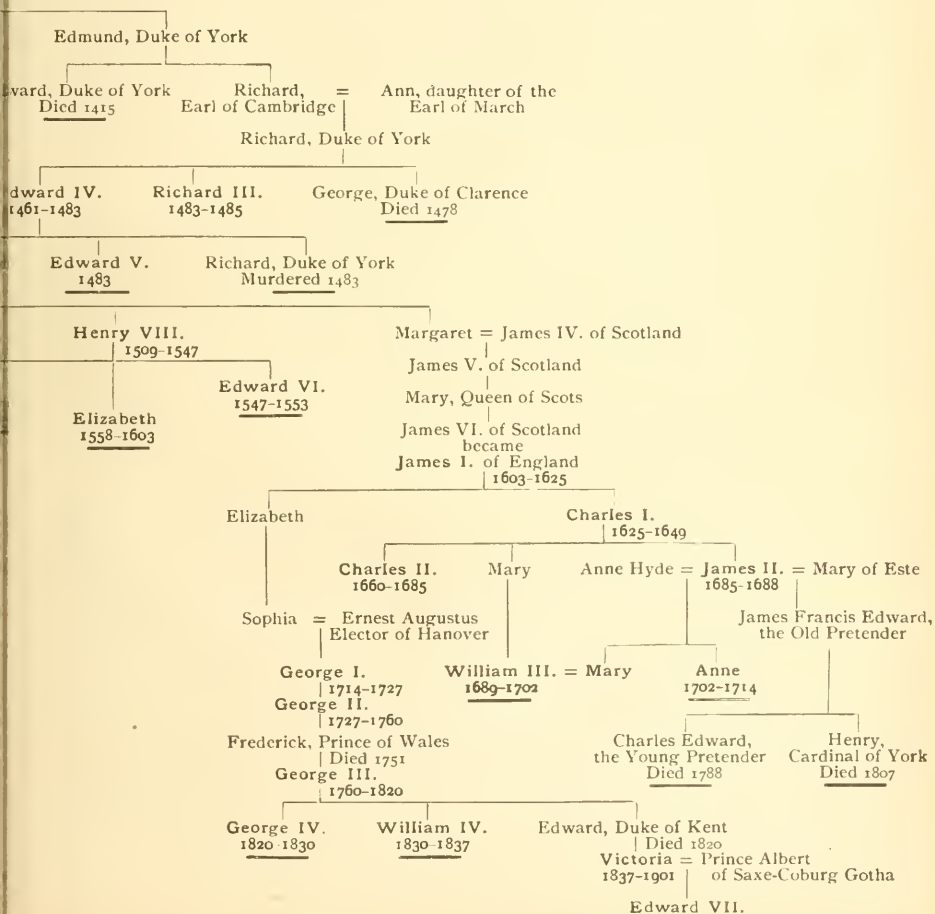


William the Conqueror  
1066 1087



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1553

# Genealogy of the English Sovereigns from William the Conqueror to Edward VII.





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